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ABSTRACT

This conference provided researchers and practitioners with a forum for sharing research findings that focus on the link between research and practice in adult, continuing, and community education. The proceedings consists of 17 papers and a symposium. The agenda is provided. The three invited papers are as follows: "Imprisoned Bodies--Free Minds: Incarcerated Women and Liberatory Learning" (Irene C. Baird); "Commonwealth of Pennsylvania's GED [General Educational Development] Graduates' Progress" (Gary J. Dean); and "Knowledge as 'Quality Non-Conformance': A Critical Case Study of ISO 9000 and Adult Education in the Workplace" (Fred M. Schied et al.). The 13 refereed papers are as follows: "Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management Faculty Perceptions of Distance Learning: Motivation to Teach Distance Learning Courses" (James A. Bardi); "Listening to Workplace Trainers: What's Wrong with Our Train-the-Trainer Programs?" (Katherine V. Beauchemin); "Leisure Travel as Adult Education" (Elizabeth Beswick, Rebecca Taksel); "Administering Distance Learning: From Planning to Serving Student Needs and Evaluating Outcomes" (Cheryl M. Boyer); "The Linguistics of Andragogy and Its Offspring" (Trenton R. Ferro); "Facilitating Perspective Transformation in Adult Education Programs: A Tool for Educators" (Kathleen P. King); "The Influence, Power, and Impact of Support Groups for Women Who Return to College" (Linda R. Madden-Brenholts, Renee Knox); "The Role of Adult Education Theory and Practice in the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-42" (C. Frederick Ralston); "Addressing Threshold Issues Before Developing a Code of Ethics for Adult Educators" (Irwin H. Siegel); "Angelou and Incarcerated Women: Their Personal Narratives as a Process for Analyzing Adult Development" (Robert Surridge, Irene C. Baird); "Parent Care: A Review of the Literature" (Susanne M. Weiland); "Learning to Learn, Learning to Change, Learning to Grow: Action Research for New Program Development" (Judy Witt); and "Adults in Transition: Clinicians to Novice Faculty Members" (Lee Zaslow). The symposium, "Technology and Adult Education--Dream or Reality?,"

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includes the following: "How Do We Do Hi-Tech Research?" (Kathleen P. King); "How Do We Integrate Technology into Our Curricula?" (Trenton R. Ferro); and "Dealing with Technology--The Personal Side" (Patricia A. Lawler). The closing remarks are "Paulo Freire and the Philosophy of Adult Education" (John L. Elias). (YLB)

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Proceedings

of the

Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

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Edited by
Kathleen P. King, Ed.D. and Trenton R. Ferro, Ed.D.

Co-Sponsored by
Association of Continuing Higher Education Region IV
Marywood University
Pennsylvania Association for Adult Continuing Education
Temple University
Widener University

Held at
Widener University
Chester, Pennsylvania

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Proceedings

of the

Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

March 21, 1998

Edited by
Kathleen P. King, Ed.D. and Trenton R. Ferro, Ed.D.

Proceedings printed by
Widener University
Chester, Pennsylvania

Introduction

Welcome to the 1998 Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference!

Today you are participating in the only conference in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania dedicated to research in the field of adult education. Its purpose is to provide researchers and practitioners with a forum for sharing research findings that focus on the link between research and practice in adult, continuing, and community education.

Today we have come full circle. In the winter of 1994 it was only an idea, a dream. Students in the Penn State-Monroeville adult education program wondered why we couldn't--and how we might--find some avenue that would allow graduate students and practitioners in the field to benefit from the presentations of Pennsylvanians at the annual international Adult Education Research Conferences. Conversations among faculty, students, and other practitioners representing Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP), Penn State-Monroeville, Penn State (University Park), Penn State's Division of Continuing and Distance Education, the Pennsylvania Association for Adult Continuing Education, and Widener University led to the first state conference at Penn State-Monroeville and a second at IUP.

In the third year, under the aegis of Penn State's Division of Continuing and Distance Education, the opportunity arose to add to the cycle a regional conference: The Eastern Adult, Continuing, and Distance Education Research Conference. This successful endeavor drew presenters and participants not only from Pennsylvania, but from the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic states, as well as, other locations throughout the continent.

This year's conference completes the cycle. The state conference is being held at the eastern end of the Commonwealth--and the date has been moved to the spring (hence, there was no conference in the 1997 calendar year) because a number of adult education activities at the regional and national level already occur in the fall. The spring date also allows more time for marketing the conference to new participants in the various adult education programs around the state. Further, we welcome the active participation and sponsorship of Region IV of the Association of Continuing Higher Education, Marywood University, and Temple University (both Harrisburg and Philadelphia).

Good practice both informs, and is informed by, good and relevant research. It is the hope of the planners of this conference that you, the participant, will develop as a practitioner and researcher by learning from, and contributing to, an expanding knowledge and research base, represented in part by the efforts of the contributors included in this volume.

Kathleen P. King, Fordham University
and
Trenton R. Ferro, Indiana University of Pennsylvania

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Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

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Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

March 21, 1998

Program

8:30 - 9:00 am	**Registration & Coffee**
9:00 - 10:15 am	**Welcome & Keynote Address** Dr. Shelley B. Wepner, Associate Dean/Director, Center for Education, Widener University Dr. Patricia A. Lawler, Associate Professor, Center for Education, Widener University Dr. Allan Quigley, Associate Professor, St. Francis Xavier University, Nova Scotia, Canada "Making Present What is Absent: Research, Practice & Speculative Audacity"
10:15 - 10:30 am	**Break**
10:30 - 11:20 am	**Concurrent Sessions I**
	Baird, Irene C. "Imprisoned Bodies-Free Minds: Incarcerated Women and Liberatory Learning"
	Bardi, James A. "Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management Faculty Perceptions of Distance Learning"
	Ferro, Trenton R. "The Linguistics of Andragogy and its Offspring"
	Siegel, Irwin H. "Addressing Threshold Issues before Developing a Code of Ethics for Adult Educators"
	Zaslow, Lee "Adults in Transition: Clinicians to Novice Faculty Members"
	King, Kathleen P. "Facilitating Perspective Transformation in Adult Education Programs: A Tool for Educators"
11:30 - 12:20 am	**Concurrent Sessions II**
	Madden Brenholts, Linda R. & Knox, Reneé "The Influence, Power, and Impact of Support Groups for Women Who Return to College"
	Dean, Gary J. "Commonwealth of Pennsylvania's GED Graduates' Progress"

Program (Continued)

Beauchemin, Katherine V. "Listening to Workplace Trainers: What's Wrong in Our Train-the-Trainer Programs?"

Beswick, Elizabeth & Taksel, Rebecca "Leisure Travel as Adult Education"

Weiland, Suzanne M. "Parent Care Research: A Review of the Literature"

12:20 - 1:20 pm **Lunch**

1:20 - 2:00 pm **Symposium**

King, Kathleen P., Ferro, Trenton R. & Lawler, Patricia A. "Technology and Education-A Dream or a Reality?"

2:10 - 3:00 pm **Concurrent Sessions III**

Schied, Fred M., Carter, Vicki K., Preston, Judith A. & Howell, Shari L. "Knowledge as 'Quality Non-Conformance:' A Critical Case Study of ISO 9000 and Adult Education in the Workplace"

Surridge, Robert & Baird, Irene, C. "Angelou and Incarcerated Women: Their Personal Narratives as a Process for Analyzing Adult Development"

Boyer, Cheryl M. "Administering Distance Learning: From Planning to Serving Student Needs and Evaluating Outcomes"

Ralston, C. Frederick "The Role of Adult Education Theory and Practice in the Civilian Conservation Corps (1933-1942)"

Witt, Judy "Learning to Learn, Learning to Change, Learning to Grow: Action Research for New Program Development"

3:00 - 3:15 pm **Break**

3:15 – 4:15 pm **Concluding Session & Address**
Dr. John Elias, Professor, Religion and Education, Fordham University
"Freire and the Philosophy of Adult Education"

Keynote Address

"Making Present What is Absent: Research, Practice & Speculative Audacity"

Allan Quigley, Ed.D.
Adult Education
St. Francis Xavier University, Nova Scotia, Canada.

We are pleased to announce that this year's keynote speaker will be Dr. Allan Quigley, Associate Professor, Adult Education Department, St. Francis Xavier University, Nova Scotia, Canada. Dr. Quigley has over 25 years of professional experience in the practice, policy development, study and teaching of Adult Education in Canada and the U.S.

Dr. Quigley's research has focused on literacy, policy, history, effective teaching, and distance education. His publications include: "To Shape the Future: Towards a Framework for Adult Education Social Policy Research and Action" in the International Journal of Lifelong Education (1993) and "Happy Consciousness: Ideology and Hidden Curricula in Literacy Education" in the *Adult Education Quarterly* (1993). His books include: *Fulfilling the Promise of Adult and Continuing Education* (1989, Jossey-Bass) and *Rethinking Literacy Education* (1997, Jossey-Bass).

His professional experience includes the Directorship of Penn State University's Adult Education Graduate Program for Western Pennsylvania and senior governmental positions with the Department of Education, Saskatchewan, Canada. Prior to 1979, he was one of the founders of Regina Plains Community College where he was Director of ABE and a Community Programmer before that. He taught vocational education and administered continuing education at Keyano College in Alberta and, from 1967-70, he was a volunteer teacher in India with CUSO (the Canadian "Peace Corps").

He has taught in a range of adult education programs from adult literacy to Graduate Degree in both Canada and the U.S.A. In 1995, he was awarded Pennsylvania's Outstanding Adult Educator Award, he received the annual Award of Academic Excellence from Penn State Continuing and Distance Education in 1995, and his research has been named "Exemplary" by the state of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Quigley received his Ed.D. in Adult Education from Northern Illinois University, his M.A. in English from the University of Regina, Saskatchewan and his double B.A.'s from the University of Saskatchewan and Campion University College, University of Saskatchewan, Canada.

Closing Remarks

"Freire and the Philosophy of Adult Education"

John L. Elias, Ed.D.
Religion and Education
Fordham University

We are pleased that Dr. John Elias, Professor of Religion and Education at Fordham University, will be delivering the closing remarks of the conference. Dr. Elias is perhaps best known for his work on the subjects of the philosophy of education, religious education and Paulo Freire. Dr. Elias is on the faculty of both the School of Education and the School of Religion and Religious Education at Fordham University. He is presently the director of the program in Church and Society/Peace and Justice and the program in adult religious education. Besides teaching at Fordham John has offered courses at Temple University, LaSalle University, Loyola Marymount College, LaRoche College, and St. Michael's College. During a two-year sabbatical in England he taught at the University of Birmingham and the University of Sussex. He has lectured at many colleges and universities including, Oxford University, the University of Edinburgh, and the London School of Education. Before entering the field of higher education John was the pastor of a Roman Catholic parish, a campus minister, a teacher of religious studies, a high school principal, and an assistant superintendent of schools for the Catholic diocese of Allentown, Pennsylvania. As superintendent he pioneered programs in faculty development, adult education, and parent education.

John Elias received his doctorate in history and philosophy of education at Temple University in 1974. His dissertation was published as *Conscientization and Deschooling: Freire's and Illich's Proposals for Reshaping Society*. His other books are *Philosophical Foundations of Adult Education* (with Sharan Merriam), *Philosophy of Education: Classical and Contemporary, Moral Education: Secular and Religious, Foundations and Practice of Adult Religious Education, Psychology and Religious Education, Studies in Theology and Education, Paulo Freire: Pedagogue of Liberation*, and *Religious Education in Adulthood* (Editor). Among the journals in which he has published articles and reviews are *Adult Education Quarterly (AEQ), British Journal of Adult Education, Religious Education*, and *British Journal of Religious Education*. His 1979 article in *AEQ* questioning the validity of the theory of andragogy was partly instrumental in inaugurating a lively debate on the topic that continues to this day.

John Elias has worked extensively with community and church groups in developing programs in adult education, notably, a leadership-training program for the South Bronx Churches to prepare church, synagogue, and mosque members to work for social and political change. He has assisted many local churches in developing comprehensive programs in adult religious education. While on sabbatical in England he founded the Centre for Adult Religious Education at St. Mary's College Strawberry Hill, and was instrumental in establishing at the University of Sussex the first postgraduate degree in adult religious education in the United Kingdom.

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PA- ACERC

INVITED PAPERS

Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

March 21, 1998

IMPRISONED BODIES - FREE MINDS: INCARCERATED WOMEN AND LIBERATORY LEARNING

Irene C. Baird

ABSTRACT

Using women's literature as a medium for self-exploration for self-awareness, incarcerated women learn to free their minds from their limiting situation. Examining the model through prison, Freirian, feminist methodologies affirms its significance/effectiveness as the essential first step for seeing things differently, for liberation from oppression.

INTRODUCTION

In an article celebrating African American women, Toni Morrison wrote, "The mind is never still ... is going to learn whether you like it or not (1995, p. 274)." For incarcerated women of all races and ethnic groups, the mandate is that, within a relatively short period of time following release from prison, "whether [they] like it or not" they better have learned something that will enable them to find "socially acceptable" employment; otherwise, the door to prison becomes a revolving one. Given this mandate, the prison where this research is currently taking place offers traditional ABE, GED classes as the presumed antidote, the appropriate "corrective education" for a perceived-illiterate population.

There is limited research on the learning ability, experiences and meanings of marginalized women, let alone the incarcerated, to support the prison's assumptions about the women and the decision to utilize literacy programs as the medium for employability (Baird, 1994, 1995; Gowen, 1992; Luttrell, 1993). To become better informed on the topic of marginalized women's learning, this study explored the efficacy of an alternative approach for acquiring practical knowledge: a humanities model that, as an essential first step, liberates them from their multiple layers of imprisonment through self-exploration, critical thinking development and action. Women's literature serves as the link. The methodology is viewed from three perspectives: prison rehabilitative education, Freirian liberation methodology and women's/feminist studies.

METHODOLOGY

A pilot project, in 1992, sparked the interest and served as the starting point for this ongoing research on learning among groups of marginalized women. Using a humanities-oriented model, homeless women engaged in an eight week process of self-examination through the writings of established female authors of similar race, class and experience. The one and one-half hour weekly sessions replaced the mandated "life skills" training designed as job readiness preparation. As an introduction, the women were told that although they were mandated to attend, they were not mandated to participate. There was no pre- or post-testing. Instead of measurement of learning skills, the intent was to introduce them to women's literature with themes relevant to their own lives, to initiate reflection and dialogue for meaning and, as a problem-solving process, for making the link to their own situation. Creative self-expression, in a form of their choice, further reinforced this process. A publication including examples of their writing reflected not only the effectiveness of such a method for the self-search but also indicated a heightened sense of self. This was termed a paradox in learning since it successfully engaged the learners in a process contrary to how society defined and addressed their learning needs (Baird, 1994).

Since 1994, the model has been implemented with incarcerated women, parolees and probationers. Four cycles, each lasting ten weeks for one and one-half hours each week, take place at both the prison site and at a program for female offenders. The incarcerated women volunteer to participate;

as with the homeless women, this project is incorporated into a structured rehabilitative program for the parolees. The basic model of reading, reflecting and writing prevails at both sites. Although the topics and related reading change according to the learners' preferences, Maya Angelou's short poem on failed relationships engages them in reflection and discussion immediately. Its relevance to their lives crosses all racial, ethnic, class barriers. Their success in relating to female authors is reflected in their assessment of the writing and, through their own writing, its connection to their personal lives. A written evaluation of this process also attests to their adaptation to this learning medium for acquiring practical, liberating knowledge about themselves.

PRISON REHABILITATIVE EDUCATION

Prison studies address issues such as the causes for incarceration; the dramatic increase in numbers of prison inmates, especially among females; recidivism and its relationship to low literacy levels. With few exceptions, such as Askins and Young (1994) studies on the learning style preference and brain hemispheric dominance among incarcerated females, most studies focus on the incarcerated male. The underlying theme of Newman, Lewis, Beverstock's work (1995), however, is the importance of providing the "right" kind of education for the incarcerated, the rehabilitative rather than punitive approaches that save human capital and tax dollars. This kind of education must maintain a socializing perspective by developing critical thinking about one's self and one's relationship both to the community and to society at large. Although they do not present a specific model, they recommend humanities-oriented programs as a process of self-examination for self-awareness. To further enhance the rehabilitative process, corrections practitioners are urged to adhere to adult education principles; to develop programs responsive to learner's needs, with hands-on learning, the researchers find, as the preferred style.

Given the focus on a humanities-oriented rehabilitative approach to learning and the fact that the female prison population has increased over 300% during the past decade, it is unfortunate that these studies devote minimal space to incarcerated women. The research findings on behavioral patterns are helpful in understanding classroom interaction; however, this limited treatment of the women's learning experiences and perspectives highlights the void in adult education research relating to marginalized, oppressed women. The development and implementation of a humanities model, having served about 275 women to date, reaffirms the effectiveness of learning through this medium and provides the literature with a learning model for oppressed women.

FREIRIAN LIBERATION MODEL

Freire's philosophy and methodology for liberating, initially, illiterate peasants from oppression through reading and writing in their own words has a political orientation: the prescription for social action to conscientize both the oppressed and the oppressor. The humanities-based model for marginalized women shares a similar philosophy about learning but focuses on individual, personal liberation from the many layers of internal crises that serve as imprisonment and oppression. In Freire's methodology, the praxis - the reflection and action - is designed as problem-solving education for the oppressed, the mechanism for them to look at their limiting situation, their reality and to find/define their own word. Succinctly, the imperative is for learners to look critically at where they find themselves, to dialogue and to take action. The same holds true for the humanities model with its liberating potential. Although its development was influenced by the meaning-making aspects of the humanities, the similarities between the two methodologies are remarkable. Learners using these methodologies, to quote Shaull in his Foreword to the *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, "come to a new awareness of self hood and begin to look critically at the social interaction in which they find themselves". The differences are in the objective of the process. Freirian learners, with their self-constructed vocabulary, "often take the initiative in acting to transform the society that has denied them this opportunity of participation (1992, p. 9)". Marginalized women, using the writing of established female authors of similar race, class and experience, take action on themselves, on their liberation through critical reflection and creative self-expression. Both methods, ultimately, help the learners find a "voice", shattering what Freire describes as the "culture of silence" of the oppressed.

WOMEN'S/FEMINIST STUDIES PERSPECTIVES

As has been noted, there is a significant void in research on the learning perspectives and experiences of marginalized women, the incarcerated being the most notable (Baird, 1994, 1995; Gowen, 1992; Luttrell, 1993). Ross-Gordon (1991) focuses on the necessity for inclusivity in adult education research and practice given that earlier studies on how women acquired knowledge and voice involved predominantly middle class, educated, Anglo-American women (Belenky et al., 1986; Gilligan, 1982). Other studies highlight learning within specific areas: some examples are Fingeret's (1982, 1984) work on basic adult literacy; Baird (1994), Gowen (1992) and Sheared (1993) studies on workplace preparation and Luttrell's (1989, 1993) attention to working women's learning perspectives, contrasting African - and Anglo - American women. Although Luttrell (1993) does not single out female learners, she underscores underrepresentation in the literature of low income adult learners, their programs, class sites, resistance or compliance to "school."

Liberation learning is the theme for Shauna Butterwick's comparative analysis of Freirian conscientization and feminist consciousness raising (n.d.). She provides the historical evolution of both philosophies and practices, noting the difference in "voice:" Freire objectifies the process and feminists write as subjects of the process (p. 3). Noting that there is diversity among women in their movement and their experiences of oppression, she highlights that the nature and causes of their oppression must be identified, analyzed and changed, that "feminists are not aware of different things than other people; they are aware of the same things differently (p. 30)." Although she finds similarities in the process of liberation, of finding a "voice" for both feminists and Freire's learners, she feels the women's process must be grounded in their every day realities. This philosophy supports the purpose of the humanities learning model, of finding a "voice" through dialogue and reflection based on daily, lived experiences, in order to deal with oppression. Where she differs significantly is in her contention that feminist consciousness raising, just as conscientization, should be a process of social action, a "liberating social movement" rather than as an adult education technique for behavioral change at the personal level.

FINDINGS AND FUTURE DIRECTION

Results of the implementation of the humanities model, group interviews and written evaluations show that

- incarcerated women are not categorically illiterate. Even non-readers and non-writers engage in the learning process by listening, discussing and, using their own voices, by dictating their reactions;
- incarcerated women are capable of sophisticated analysis of the reading. Since they are not threatened by the process, they are comfortable in using the reading to examine their own life situations because of its relevance to their own interests, beliefs and problems;
- incarcerated women do establish parameters on what they will share in the dialogue process. They are more explicit in their writing and use that component as a means of "freeing their minds."
- In spite of the site incarcerated women feel ownership in the process and participate on a regular basis. Currently there is a waiting list for the program.

Counselors at the prison share that because the women continued their involvement in the process in their cell blocks they were far less hostile. Their basic education scores improved and two released women are attending a local community college. One woman received recognition from a national poetry organization for work she submitted. At the practice level, therefore, this process provides another approach for engaging women in a non-threatening, challenging learning format, especially useful for those in crisis. It demystifies literature and confirms it as a learning tool since this methodology is grounded in the women's daily lives. Reflecting on the experiences narrated by known, successful authors such as Maya Angelou seems to validate those women who learn to see things differently.

On the theoretical level, this study contributes to adult education literature by offering some perspectives on marginalized women's learning. It provides insight into how they conceive and

frame learning, in how they are able to engage in critical thinking as a process for liberating themselves even in as limiting a situation as the prison. Once developed, the critical thinking process should also serve them as they engage in the precarious transition to the "outside." Reflecting on the humanities model through the prison, Freirian and women's/feminist studies lenses, the following themes emerged: the significance of self-exploration, the importance of dialogue for generating critical thinking; the engagement in some form of action, with critical reflection considered applicable to this process; getting in touch with one's reality and finding a "voice" as a liberatory, learning process.

The women's written evaluations affirmed the themes as well as the feminist perspective that even within their limiting situation, they are not aware of different things than other women but rather, as transformation, they have become aware of the same things differently. To use the learner's words "[this program] has aloud me to open up some things in my life I thought that I wouldn't have to think about for nothing at all." Another wrote, "this ... has made me take a good look at myself and my family ... I never new how much I needed any of them until I went away ... because I had forgotten [them] just as much as they forgotten me ... thank you for taking me back to reality." Finally, "Since I've been coming here ... I have written down a lot of pain, happiness and hope for the future. I got out a lot of emotions through my writing ... It would also give me hope to read other women's struggles with life who made it and succeeded.

The "nagging" question is the degree, the extent and duration of the liberating process, especially once the incarcerated women are released and do not have the learning environment and support this program provides. For women with unbelievable crises to deal with, ten weeks is hardly adequate for more than setting the process in place. The model needs more extensive implementation, both in the prison and on the "outside", and with other groups of marginalized women to continue strengthening as well as assessing the liberatory learning process for oppressed women.

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COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA'S GED GRADUATES' PROGRESS

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ABSTRACT

A follow-up study of 3,099 GED graduates in Pennsylvania from 1974 through 1994 was conducted to identify changes in employment characteristics, living arrangements, and income, as well as preparation for the GED, further education, and outcomes of passing the GED. All findings indicated that GED graduates perceived obtaining the GED as extremely beneficial.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this project was to identify the outcomes of obtaining a GED in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The study was funded by the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE), Project #098-6013.

The survey instrument was developed based on a review of the literature and was field tested by sending it to GED graduates in the Pittsburgh, PA, area. The resulting instrument consisted of 70 items on six pages. The sample for the study was obtained in the following manner: 1) a random sample of 300 GED graduates was selected for each year from 1982 through 1994, 2) a sample of 965 was randomly selected by hand for 1975 to 1981 (the time period prior to computerization of GED records), and 3) all of these records were cross-checked with the Pennsylvania Department of Transportation (PennDOT) current registrations of drivers licenses which resulted in a sample of 3,099 individuals. Two mailings were sent during the winter of 1996. There were 989 usable responses to these mailings. Based on the original sample of 3,099, this is a response rate of 31.91%. When the undeliverable surveys (n = 626) are removed, the resulting adjusted response rate for the study is 39.99%.

The potential for response bias was determined by a third mailing sent in May, 1996, to a random sample (n = 200) of the nonrespondents (n = 1484) with a response of n = 49 (24.5%). A shortened version of the survey was used to acquire demographic data from the nonrespondents. Analysis of the data was accomplished in two ways. First, ANOVAs were used to determine that there were no statistically significant differences between the respondents and nonrespondents for age when the GED was taken (respondent mean age = 29.23 and nonrespondent mean age = 27.22, $F = 1.33$, $df = 1$, $p = .248$) and for their current age (respondents = 37.51 and nonrespondents = 34.71, $F = 2.39$, $df = 1$, $p = .122$). There was a difference between respondents and nonrespondents for the number of years of school completed prior to taking the GED (respondents = 10.11 and nonrespondents = 10.51 years of school, $F = 5.07$, $df = 1$, $p = .025$). In the second analysis, Pearson chi-squares were computed to show that there were no differences between respondents and nonrespondents for gender (chi-square = 1.48, $df = 1$, $p = .222$), current employment status (chi-square = 4.41, $df = 1$, $p = .353$), and current income (chi-square = 10.60, $df = 1$, $p = .101$).

FINDINGS

The following topics are addressed in this paper: demographics, employment characteristics, income and living arrangements, preparation for the GED, and further education and outcomes of the GED. Only selected findings are presented in this paper; the full report contains additional findings (Dean, Eisenreich, & Hubbell, 1996).

DEMOGRAPHICS

There were a total of 456 men and 518 women, with 15 respondents not providing their gender identity. The mean age of respondents at the time of taking the GED was 29.32, and their current

mean age was 37.71. The mean age for men at the time they took the GED was 27.49,and the mean age for women was 30.93 (the difference was statistically significant with F = 19.87, df = 1, and p = .000). There was also a statistically significant difference between the current ages of the men and women with the mean age of the women at 38.72 and the mean age of the men at 36.42 (F = 9.11, df = 1, p = .003). These differences indicate that the women were typically older than their male counterparts for both when they took the GED and their current age.

EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Respondents were asked to indicate employment characteristics for both the time periods before they took the GED and the present. The findings indicate that more people are employed for pay now as compared to the time before they took the GED. Before the GED there were 38.7% (n = 371) not employed for pay) versus 18.2% (n = 173) now. Those employed for pay increased from 60.2% (n = 578) to 77.6% (n = 736). A Pearson chi-square was computed for the differences in the distributions of employment status. The resulting data showed that there was a statistically significant difference in employment status from before the time the GED was taken to the present. The Pearson chi-square statistic was 192.36, df = 4, p =.000. The trend in the data indicate that the number of people employed for pay increased significantly after the GED as opposed to before it.

The number of hours respondents were employed before they took the GED and now was also measured. Those employed for 30 hours or less constituted 33.2% (n = 229) of the sample before the GED and 16.7% (n = 126) now. Also, the number employed for 31 hours or more increased from 66.8% (n = 461) before the GED to 83.43% (n = 631) now. A Pearson chi-square was computed for the differences in the two distributions for hours employed. The resulting analysis shows that the number of respondents working 31 or more hours per week increased significantly from before taking the GED to now. The Pearson chi-square statistic was 24.34, with df = 1, and p = .000.

The respondents' perceptions of the skill level of their jobs was also measured. Again, the data indicate a positive trend with those considering their jobs to be low to moderately skilled at 88.4% (n = 617) before they took the GED and 51.2% (n = 395) now. Correspondingly, the percent of those considering their jobs to be highly or very highly skilled jumped from 11.6% (n = 81) before the GED to 48.8% (n = 376) now. When the responses of low skilled to very highly skilled are rated on a scale of 1 to 5, then mean scores for before the GED and now can be computed and compared. The mean response for before the GED was 2.32 versus a mean response of 3.47 for now. A dependent samples *t* test conducted between the two means resulted in a *t* statistic of -25.49, with df = 676, and p = .000. The statistically significant difference indicates that the respondents in this study considered their jobs to be more highly skilled now as compared to the time before they took the GED test.

Job satisfaction was measured by a scale consisting of A = Not at all satisfied, B = Somewhat satisfied, C = Moderately satisfied, D = Highly satisfied, and E = Very highly satisfied. The findings indicate that those with no to moderate job satisfaction (responses A + B + C) decreased from 88.1% (n = 602) before the GED to 50.1% (n = 382) now, while those with high job satisfaction (responses D + E) increased from 11.9% (n = 81) before the GED to 49.7% (n = 377) now. As in the case of skill level, job satisfaction can be ranked on a scale from 1 to 5. The mean response for before the GED was 2.26 versus a mean response of 3.44 for now. A dependent samples *t* test conducted between the two means resulted in a *t* statistic of -23.04, with df = 659, and p = .000. The statistically significant difference indicates that the respondents in this study are more highly satisfied with their jobs now than before they took the GED test.

In the item measuring benefits received from employment, respondents could check as many responses as applied to them. The changes in job benefits are as follows: those receiving no benefits decreased from 490 (49.9%) before the GED to 298 (30.3%) now; those receiving health insurance increased from 348 (35.4%) before the GED to 547 (55.6%) now; those receiving life insurance increased from 209 (21.3%) before the GED to 410 (41.7%) now; those receiving a pension or retirement increased from 183 (18.6%) to 394 (40.1%) now; and those receiving vacation

benefits increased from 296 (30.1%) to 530 (53.9%) now. In all cases the difference between before the GED and now was statistically significant in the desired direction indicating that respondents received more benefits from work now than before taking the GED.

INCOME AND LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

Responses indicated that more people owned a home after they took the GED test than before; home ownership rate was 53.1% for now versus 34.7% before the GED. A Pearson chi-square for this item resulted in a chi-square statistic of 140.38, df = 1, and p = .000.

A total of 83.4% (n = 742) earned less than $20,000 before the GED versus 57.3% (n = 529) now. This is compared to 16.6% (n = 147) earning more than $20,000 before the GED versus 42.7% (n = 395) now. This same configuration of responses put into a 2 x 2 contingency table results in a chi-square statistic of 98.88, with df = 1, and p = .000, indicating that the differences in income for before the GED and now are statistically significant.

PREPARATION FOR THE GED

Of the respondents, 57.6% indicated that they enrolled in ABE/GED classes as preparation for the GED test, 6.1% worked with an individual tutor, 41.0% took a practice GED test, 61.8% used curriculum materials designed for GED preparation, 29.1% studied with a friend or relative, and 22.1% talked with someone who had previously taken the GED test.

The helpfulness of different aspects of ABE/GED classes were ranked using a six-point scale from 1 = not helpful to 6 = very helpful (Table 1). The respondents considered the teachers as the most helpful aspect of the ABE/GED classes followed closely by the books and materials. In every case the women rated the items statistically significantly higher than the men, indicating that the women felt the ABE/GED classes were more helpful than the men did.

The average number of times respondents were enrolled in ABE/GED classes was 1.06 (with a standard deviation of .37). The overwhelming majority of respondents enrolled in ABE/GED classes only once. The average length of stay in ABE/GED classes was 10.93 weeks, SD = 11.22, and the range was from 0 to 98 weeks. Respondents also indicated the number of times they took the GED test: 91.7% (n = 888) took the test once, 6 6% (n = 64) took it twice, 1.4% (n = 13) took it three times, .1% (n = 1) took it 4 times, and .2% (n = 2) took it five times.

FURTHER EDUCATION AND OUTCOMES OF PASSING THE GED

Respondents were asked to identify the impact on their lives of earning a GED. They rated items on a six point scale from 1 = not at all helpful to 6 = a great deal helpful. As is indicated in Table 2, the following outcomes were rated most highly: feel better about self, improve life in general, encourage children to finish school, get a better job, enroll in additional schooling, and increasing income. The gender comparisons of these responses indicated that the difference between men and women was statistically significantly different for each response.

Respondents were asked to identify how many other people they have encouraged to attend ABE/GED classes. The range of responses is from 0 to 40 with a mean of 2.23 and standard deviation of 4.02. An ANOVA was run to determine if there were differences between the number of people encouraged to enroll in ABE/GED by men and women. Men encouraged an average of 1.90 people to attend ABE/GED classes while the women encouraged an average of 2.49 people to attend. This difference was statistically significant at F = 4.08, df = 1, p = .044. The number of people encouraged to take the GED by the respondents was also measured. The average number encouraged was 3.29 with a standard deviation of 5.69. While 188 people did not encourage anyone to take the test, a total of 419 respondents encouraged between one and three people to take the test.

Table 1: Helpfulness of ABE/GED Classes

How helpful were the following		n	Mean	F	df	p
A.	The teachers	Men	184	4.99	4.74	1 .030
		Women	278	5.26		
		Total	462	5.19		
B.	The books and materials	Men	184	4.78	11.05	1 .001
		Women	278	5.17		
		Total	462	5.06		
C.	The things you were taught	Men	184	4.52	12.58	1 .000
		Women	278	4.97		
		Total	462	4.84		
D.	The other students	Men	184	3.14	8.44	1 .004
		Women	278	3.61		
		Total	462	3.45		
E.	The place where the classes were held	Men	184	4.09	13.53	1 .000
		Women	278	4.65		
		Total	462	4.47		
F.	The times when classes were held	Men	193	4.69	10.34	1 .001
		Women	294	5.08		
		Total	487	4.91		
G.	Overall helpfulness of the classes	Men	193	4.96	11.41	1 .001
		Women	294	5.32		
		Total	487	5.19		

A total of 599 people (60.56% of the total sample) participated in some form of further education after they took the GED. These respondents were enrolled in a total of 812 education and training programs. There were 225 respondents enrolled in technical, non-degree programs; 149 people enrolled in two-year associate degree programs; 50 respondents enrolled in four-year colleges and universities; and 252 respondents who participated in on-the-job training. In addition to the

options given in the item, 136 respondents indicated other types of further education and training in which they participated: EMT training, vocational-technical school, fire or police training, and truck driver training.

DISCUSSION

This study compares favorably with other studies of GED graduates conducted in Pennsylvania, Iowa, Kentucky, and Canada. A study by Miller (1987) of GED graduates in Pennsylvania corroborates that self-esteem is a primary beneficiary of passing the GED. Miller found that 70% of the respondents indicated increases in self-esteem and 90% felt their families shared their sense of accomplishment. Also, Miller found that full-time employment increased from 31.7% to 48%. A study in Canada found that full-time and part-time employment increased 12.5% while unemployment decreased 45.8% for those who passed the GED (New Brunswick Department of Advanced Education and Training, 1990). In addition it was found that 36% enrolled in additional training. The Iowa study found that 13 measures of employment and economic security all increased for GED graduates (State of Iowa, Department of Education, 1992). Similar findings were also evident in the Kentucky study (Raisor, Gerber, Bucholtz, & McCreary, 1993).

This study of GED graduates in Pennsylvania demonstrates the perceived benefits of obtaining a GED. Respondents indicated improvements in all of the economic and noneconomic indicators measured. The findings provide additional strong evidence of the value of obtaining a GED.

Table 2: Impact of Earning the GED

Impact		Gender	n	Mean	F	df	p
A.	Keep a job	Men	392	2.93	7.41	1	.007
		Women	414	3.30			
		Total	806	3.19			
B.	Get a better job	Men	392	3.39	6.61	1	.010
		Women	414	3.75			
		Total	806	3.66			
C.	Increase your income	Men	392	3.28	7.05	1	.008
		Women	414	3.66			
		Total	806	3.54			
D.	Perform better in your job	Men	392	2.85	16.32	1	.000
		Women	414	3.39			
		Total	806	3.22			
E.	Help your children with their school and work	Men	392	2.46	28.02	1	.000
		Women	414	3.17			
		Total	806	2.91			
F.	Encourage your children to finish school	Men	381	3.46	21.45	1	.000
		Women	409	4.20			
		Total	790	3.93			
G.	Enroll in additional schooling	Men	381	3.27	14.31	1	.000
		Women	409	3.85			
		Total	790	3.64			
H.	Become more involved in your community	Men	381	2.21	27.62	1	.000
		Women	409	2.86			
		Total	790	2.62			
I.	Feel better about yourself	Men	381	4.73	47.58	1	.000
		Women	409	5.45			
		Total	790	5.17			
J.	Improve your life in general	Men	381	3.93	24.83	1	.000
		Women	409	4.57			
		Total	790	4.35			
K.	Be more economically secure	Men	150	3.07	5.53	1	.019
		Women	157	3.62			
		Total	307	3.71			
L.	Enter the military	Men	150	1.32	6.80	1	.010
		Women	157	1.07			
		Total	307	1.39			

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KNOWLEDGE AS "QUALITY NON-CONFORMANCE": A CRITICAL CASE STUDY OF ISO 9000 AND ADULT EDUCATION IN THE WORKPLACE.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the rationale behind the adoption of ISO 9000 standards and determined the ways in which knowledge was conceived and used. The study focused on the impact of the process seeking ISO 9000 registration and the way in which learning processes come to be defined as defective.

INTRODUCTION

Adult educators have increasingly become concerned with the ideological dimensions of learning in the workplace (Briton, 1996; Foley, 1994; Gowen, 1992; Hart, 1992; Howell, Preston, Schied & Carter, 1996; Kincheloe, 1995; Rubenson, 1992). Most of these concerns have focused on workplace learning conceptualized as a process of human resource development or, more recently, human performance technology. American businesses have turned to quality measurement processes which formalize and standardize the production of knowledge in the workplace. Interwoven within the various quality management movements and closely tied to so-called "postindustrial" forms of production, these processes, as certified by an international quality standards organization, view learning as part of production (Carter, 1994; Hunt, 1993; Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995).

This paper is an overview of a larger ongoing study that examined the role of ISO 9000 in controlling and shaping learning and work processes in business and industry. These standards, identified as the 9000 series in the jargon of ISO, have become increasingly important and influential in shaping educational and training activities for American businesses. Literature suggests that especially for those businesses involved in international trade, ISO 9000 certification will become virtually mandatory early in the next century (Clements, 1993). Indeed, there is every reason to suspect that educational institutions will also begin to adopt ISO standards (Doherty, 1995; Tovey, 1994).

Methodology

Since space restrictions prevent a detailed discussion of the project's research design, this is necessarily a brief overview. The study was conducted over a two year period using ethnographic methods of participant observation, informal and formal interviews, and other unobtrusive methods of data collection. The research team first collected and analyzed primary corporation ISO documentation including training manuals, strategic planning documents, and ISO 9000 work procedures.

In line with Spradley (1980), the research team's participation ranged along the continuum of degrees of involvement and types of participation from moderate involvement and participation to high involvement and complete immersion. One research team member participated in the ISO training process and implementation over the total period of ISO registration. In a series of visits to the plant, researchers conducted open-ended informal interviews on the shop floor. In-depth interviews based on phenomenological techniques were conducted off-site. Purposeful sampling was used to select the formal interviewees (Patton, 1990). Corporate documentation, interviews (both

formal and informal) and participant observation provided researchers with a thick and rich description of the plant's climate and worker culture (Seidman, 1991). Taken together these sources provided a holistic picture of the working life at the company during the ISO 9000 registration process. Trustworthiness was ensured by source and analyst triangulation. Data were sorted, coded, and interpreted on an ongoing basis throughout the two year period (Kincheloe, 1991; Patton, 1990; Spradley, 1980).

ISO 9000 in the Global Context

ISO 9000 standards, from the Greek 'iso' meaning equal, were designed to equalize quality systems within multi-site organizations, multi-national corporations, and across national borders. ISO theoretically assisted in the pursuit of high quality products at low costs within a global economic structure. The assumptions behind these standards were that having one basic level of quality worldwide allowed for the interchangeability of parts for multiple vendors, keeping prices low and allowing for flexibility in manufacturing processes. Meeting ISO 9000 standards, it was assumed, meant that an organization, by listening to its customers, would achieve a high degree of customer satisfaction through uniform methods of quality assurance. The standards themselves focused on augmenting the level of quality delivered to customers while pursuing economic efficiency. Thus, if there were good quality assurance processes in place, good quality products would follow. Despite their origins in manufacturing, these standards are rapidly beginning to be applied to all types of non-manufacturing environments, including educational and training settings. (Frazer, 1992; Huyink & Westover, 1994; Stamatis, 1995; Taormina, 1996)

This quality standardization had its origins in World War II. Insights gleaned from failure of munitions and explosives amplified the problems of having different quality and production standards for similar products. Two decades later, the European Community, incorporated those lessons into international trade agreements. In 1987, the International Organization of Standardization , located in Switzerland, began to set industrial manufacturing standards for a minimal system of quality assurance that could be applied to trade world wide and released the first of the ISO registration requirements. Dealing with similar issues of quality, the United States adopted parallel standards created by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) and the American Society for Quality Control (ASQC). (Lamprecht, 1993; Rabbit & Bergh, 1994)

The European Community justified conformity assessment as a means to ensure that products affecting health and safety that were placed on the market conformed to the requirements of member countries. ISO registration became essential for the seamless passage of goods across European borders. Therefore, contractual agreements between producers and suppliers became increasingly commonplace. To participate in the European marketplace, non-European countries have also begun seeking ISO registration (Hoyle, 1994).

Proponents of ISO 9000 claim that it is a neutral set of guidelines seeking to develop management systems that standardize quality assurance processes in the workplace. ISO standardizes by codifying how data related to quality assurance are collected and used to improve processes, reliability, business protocols, and other quality characteristics. To become ISO registered, an organization must adhere to a three-tiered documentation process. Technical, administrative, and human factors affecting the quality of products and services are systematized so that management can document that it has control of all factors affecting quality. Systems must be oriented toward the reduction, elimination, and most importantly, prevention of quality non-conformance (Kantner, 1994; Lamprecht, 1992; Peach, 1995).

ISO 9000 in the Workplace

The study took place in a northeastern manufacturing firm of a multinational corporation. The 250 person workforce was composed primarily of line workers supported by a technical group with shift and administrative management, including a quality manager. In 1992 as a part of the corporate business plan to increase trade with the EC, the company began an initiative to achieve ISO 9000 registration. The corporate leadership introduced all workers to the ISO 9000 initiative with a brief fifteen minute overview. Workers in the plant were responsible for producing level 3 work task

procedures. ISO 9000 processes required level 1 documentation to describe corporate goals, level 2 to describe corporate policies and procedures, and level 3 to define work tasks in support of corporate goals, policies and procedures.

After a pre-audit, workers from all functional areas of the plant were given ten hours training on how to write standard operating instructions. Then the trained workers went back to their respective areas to codify work activities and turn them into written procedures able to be followed by new employees. ISO 9000 standards demanded that these procedures be simple, sequential, and written in a transparent manner. Ultimately through a consensual process, a single SOI was agreed upon because ISO 9000 required conformance to a single protocol for each of nearly 600 quality related tasks. The quality manager's directions to workers were, "Do what you say and say what you do."

ISO 9000's purpose was to achieve a uniform protocol reflecting how work was actually done. In reality workers composed procedures based on perceived management expectations and the templates provided by ISO 9000. For example, if workers had developed shortcuts or more efficient ways of working, these were not described because as one worker said, "it was not the way jobs were *officially* performed." Thus where ISO 9000 demanded a single way to do a task, there were many ways individual workers and different shifts *actually* did their work. Moreover, in trying to achieve consensus researchers found that decisions were made outside of the group, sometimes by the loudest voice, and only occasionally within the group.

ISO 9000 required that workers who performed quality related tasks had documentation that demonstrated they were capable of performing a task. In this case, plant trainers certified workers on the SOIs by asking questions and observing performance. Certification became a condition of employment. The two year ISO 9000 registration process concluded with a week-long review by outside auditors who announced they would recommend registration. Immediately management began a discussion on how to use ISO registration as a marketing tool. .

The Irony of ISO

For line workers, there was tremendous resistance to giving up their own protocols for getting their jobs done and conforming to sterile processes. Thus for the purposes of certification they would perform the task as expected by the trainer and as specified by the procedure. However, based on the research team's observations, workers continued to perform tasks in their own improvised fashion. In fact one worker held out an SOI to a researcher, laughed and said, "Take a look at this, nobody follows these." Following procedures implied that workers knowledge became subjugated knowledge and needed to be purged from the workers cultural memory in favor of the ISO structure. When writing SOIs, workers were rigid and precise about noting every single motion, but were extremely resistant to following these procedures once written. Workers were often unable to articulate what they were actually doing because it was a foreign way of thinking about their job and because they became mired in the minutiae of the task. For example a worker with a strong quality assurance background had a hard time seeing her job as being linear or as a series of non-integrated mini-tasks. Similar to what Gowen (1992) found in her research, many workers saw their jobs holistically. ISO 9000 attempted to purge workers' way of looking at work from their personal repertoire in seeking conformance to standards.

Many technical workers, supervisory personnel, and middle managers also resisted. They expressed anger at having to be responsible for codifying procedures. They felt the ISO process interfered with real work. Whole technical areas wrote only write five or six procedures. Researchers discovered that some of the documentation, especially among the technical and supervisory personnel, was conjured up to eliminate the need to document complex problem solving skills that were not linear or sequential.

Workers told researchers that they were afraid of being watched by co-workers, supervisors, and internal quality auditors, and of losing their jobs. Thus their jobs became stage performances when workers thought they might be under observation. Much information about ISO processes had to be kept at the tips of their fingers and at the tips of their tongues. Lower level workers were particularly

vulnerable to blame and subject to dismissal if something went wrong. Workers now became the keepers of standardized knowledge as well as their own unsanctioned ways of working. This was the knowledge and language of work they were reluctant to reveal during the period when job tasks were being codified.

The company's successful ISO 9000 registration was imbued with touches of irony. For example, line workers said, "I am continuing to do my job just the way I always did it. This is just window dressing." Even the plant manager spoke to this perception of ISO 9000 as window dressing by saying, "Now that we have this crap under our belt we can get down to doing the real work."

Conclusions

So what has ISO 9000 accomplished? For the company, the need to achieve ISO 9000 registration was driven by more than legal and customer requirements. It was used to clarify and advertise organizational goals by complying with internationally recognized standards that purport to identify elements of a successful quality organization. Conformity within industries also makes it easier to market products and reduces trade barriers dealing with issues of safety, communication protocols and quality standards.

In the quest to reduce product defects, the ISO 9000 registration procedure attempted to wholly integrate learning and knowledge into the production process while protecting the interests of management. Though not successful, ISO 9000 sought to formalize and appropriate worker knowledge. Thus in this quality standardization process, knowledge itself became a way to oppress and control workers. Anything outside the narrowly defined standards was considered a quality non-conformance whether it be process, procedures, or people. As Tovey has noted, "by starting with a broad meaningless notion like non-conforming product, a tendency towards de-humanising the situation is largely unavoidable" (1994, p. 73-74). Further, the study demonstrated the increasing tendency toward multinational standardization of workplace education through the ISO 9000 process. The ISO 9000 process made workers assessable, measurable, comparable, and able to be judged against international standards of "quality" as defined by corporate interests.

This study contributes to the growing critique of workplace education conceived as human resource development and human performance technology (Briton, 1996; Cunningham, 1993; Foley, 1993; Wilkinson & Willmott, 1995). The study suggests that understanding how adult education in the workplace is connected to a systematized management scheme involving psychological forms of control is under theorized. Finally, the study suggests that education in the workplace is moving towards an international standardization based on corporate notions of quality that promises to become the next wave in training and development.

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REFEREED PAPERS

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HOTEL, RESTAURANT, AND INSTITUIONAL MANAGEMENT FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF DISTANCE LEARNING: MOTIVATION TO TEACH DISTANCE LEARNING COURSES

James A. Bardi

ABSTRACT

Administrators of hospitality management majors who want to incorporate distance learning programs (technology based) into their course of study are urged to review the complex relationship of administration, faculty and students. The purpose of this research was to uncover perceptions of faculty in Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management (HRIM) with regard to the motivations for participation in distance learning. Qualitative research methodology was used to understand the pivotal role of faculty in distance learning. One user and one non-user of distance learning in six different HRIM programs located in U.S. universities were interviewed. Triangulation of sources was performed and a reflexive journal was maintained to avoid bias. The results of this research reveal intrinsic motivations are operating to involve faculty in distance learning and faculties feel that an adult market for utilizing distance learning is appropriate. Although the results of qualitative research can not be used to generalize to other settings, HRIM administrators in higher education and continuing education program directors may want to review the implications of this research on faculty participation in developing credit and non credit distance learning programs in HRIM.

INTRODUCTION

The prospects of adopting distance learning in higher education offer administrators many opportunities and challenges. The opportunities include offering educational opportunities and courses to more students in remote sections of the world and extending faculty expertise to many students. The challenges include developing programs to meet the needs of a changing market, a limited budget, as well as a concern for internal organizational cooperation (Murgatroyd & Woudstra, 1989). The focus of this paper concerns research efforts to determine internal organizational cooperation - the faculty's role in distance learning. Understanding the faculty's perceptions of distance learning will allow administrators of HRIM and continuing education programs to use that information in developing faculty members who want to instruct students using distance learning. Although the findings from qualitative research can not be applied to other situations, directors of continuing education programs may want to consider these findings in developing their policies for faculty participation in distance learning.

TECHNOLOGY IN HIGER EDUCATION

When communications technologies are introduced into an organization it is important to review its impact upon faculty, students, and administrators (Froke, 1994). These stakeholders and others in higher education enact the roles of participants, decision-makers, and powerholders. Their interaction results in policy development over ownership of distance learning and legitimacy of the activity. Blumenstyk (1997) in her review of distance learning activities of elite private universities suggests cautious movement of administrators and faculty. The members of the Association of American Universities are beginning to add legitimacy to distance learning by offering courses on line and over video networks. These institutions are searching for new students in overseas markets and alumni as well as partnering with other private universities and the private sector. Blumenstyk (1997) notes the faculty concern for quality courses and administrative concern for quality student pool and financial feasibility. In public-related land grant universities such as Penn State, Janesch (1997) reports on a more aggressive effort to

incorporate distance learning into higher education a World Campus, "a University-wide initiative with no walls, where learning is accomplished via the Internet and other new information technologies" (p. 1). Community colleges in higher education are also pioneering efforts to adopt distance education. In the article, "All 107 of California's Community Colleges Are Getting Wired for Internet Videoconferencing" (1997), efforts are discussed to increase distance learning courses in California's community colleges.

Dolence and Norris (1995) provide unconventional insights into faculty, student and administrative roles in transforming higher education in the next millennium. Dolence and Norris indicate that the market place has several new facets of the faculty role such as researcher, synthesizer, mentor, evaluator and certifier of mastery, architect, and navigator. The traditional role of researcher will be performed by a smaller number of faculty with " a greater emphasis on synthesis of discovery research findings" (p. 62). The professor's role as synthesizer of new knowledge will become an important part of scholarship. The role of classroom instructor will be transformed to that of learning mentor, which will help students sort out relationships and higher-order concepts. The faculty role as architect will require a collaboration by faculty to "design combinations of skills sets, mastery, and development that are required for awarding credit, certification, or degrees" (pp. 63-64). The role of navigator of student learning will require faculty to assist students in developing and attaining learning goals. The role of administrator will include those of general contractor of the technology infrastructure and knowledge navigation network, developer of systems, products and services for the Information Age and auditor of the learning support and certification. The new role of student will encompass activities such as becoming an active learner, taking responsibility for learning outcomes, maintaining connection and commitment to learning, and becoming a pilot for their education.

FACULTY MOTIVATION AND REWARD TO DO DISTANCE LEARNING

Dolence and Norris' (1995) brave new view of participant roles in higher education will require a thorough understanding of participant interaction. Because distance learning has become an innovative part of higher education, understanding of participant roles is significant. Although Froke (1994) stresses faculty must have control over policy development of quality in courses and programs for distance learning to come to fruition, Lewis and Wall (1988) report "faculty members themselves are often the creators of significant obstacles through their own intransigence, ignorance, or bias related to technology and it uses" (p. 9). It is because of that conflicting nature of faculty involvement with distance learning that the role of faculty should be explored.

Goodwin, Miklich, and Overall (1993) report on motivation of faculty as an integral concern for distance learning to prosper. Concepts such as convenience, instructional method, opportunity to try a new experience, enjoyment of the learning experience for faculty and students, flexibility of instructional method, and opportunity to teach enriched students in the program were reasons why faculty chose to participate in distance learning. They also reported curriculum, time, support services, lack of control in curriculum development, inflexible, out-of-date, or inappropriate modules, compensation, lack of immediate feedback, and unmanageable class size as areas of non motivation.

Goodwin, Miklich, and Overall's (1993) previous discussion of intrinsic motivators and Dillon and Walsh's (1992) discussion of extrinsic motivators, such as " . . . neither reward by their academic departments or perception as a scholarly activity by significant colleagues" (p. 16), provide a rich forum for researching motivation of faculty to participate in distance learning. Larison (1995) recommended "A study that examines [faculty] reward structures for technology-based distance education would be helpful in understanding the successful implementation of new teaching technologies" (p. 157). In the busy world of hospitality education, faculty must prioritize their responsibilities and choose opportunities that will enhance teaching, research, or service.

Several emergent themes provide a focus for this research. Olcott and Wright's (1995) model for distance learning placed faculty at the center of this emerging pedagogy because faculty are the developers of learning systems which assist students in developing student potential. This theme

urges an exploration of faculty issues which will support the development of distance learning. Dillon and Walsh (1992) and Billings et al. (1994) introduce the concept of reward for this time investment in distance learning. If time spent on distance learning is not rewarded or perceived as a scholarly activity then participation in distance learning is unlikely. However, Dillon and Walsh's (1992) statement that faculty motivation to use distance learning is intrinsic is contrasted by Moore's (1994) who states that faculty management concerns of offering training programs and reward as well as Mirabito (1996) who indicates a concern of monetary reward for participation in distance learning. It is this conflict of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which provide an area for further research.

HOSPITALITY EDUCATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

There is an opportunity for training and offering credit and non credit courses through distance learning to adults who work in the hospitality industry. The hospitality industry requires a constant influx of professionally trained persons to plan, to develop, and to implement financial, operational, marketing, and human resource management programs. The hospitality industry employs millions of people in its multi-billion dollar industry with outlets in hotels, restaurants, institutional food and housing, resorts, country club, and life care facilities. There are many professional organizations to support the industry, such as the National Restaurant Association, a professional organization of 30,000 members representing 175,000 food service outlets, and the American Hotel & Motel Association, a professional organization which represents 10,000 individual hotels, motels, and resorts in the United States. These organizations provide member services that include professional development, operations update, and political activism on the state and national levels. Their educational arms The Educational Foundation of the National Restaurant Association and the Educational Institute of the American Hotel & Motel Association have offered separate non-credit courses and programs designed for distance learning through correspondence courses. Also, Hospitality Television based in Louisville, Kentucky broadcasts televised continuing education training programs to persons employed in the hospitality industry. This is the first venture of a private corporation into offering hospitality industry based distance learning programming and is still in its formative stages.

The concept of distance learning in Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management (HRIM) in higher education is currently in the planning stages of developing a vision for its use. Although distance learning which incorporates technology has been used by HRIM faculty and professionals in the hospitality industry, minimal use of distance learning has been adopted. The hospitality management major is positioned for development of distance learning. There are 247 two-year colleges and 168 four-year colleges offering degrees in Hotel and Restaurant Management in the U.S. and Canada (Peterson's Guide, 1997). However, Peterson's Guide (1996a, 1996b) lists only thirty-five undergraduate institutions and eight graduate institutions offering distance learning courses in Hospitality Services Management in the U.S. and Canada. Also, Hospitality Television's pioneer effort to fill the continuing education/ training needs of hospitality professionals and front line employees adds to the significance of developing distance learning.

Previous discussions of the complex inter-relationship of administration, faculty, and students in higher education urges HRIM administrators and faculty to also review faculty perceptions of distance learning. Administrators in HRIM programs are under the same pressures to be innovative with shrinking budgets and faculty must prepare graduates to meet the demanding managerial and continuing education requirements of the hospitality industry. Faculty in HRIM are a diverse group of professionals in higher education. Requirements to teach in this discipline include an academic degree and industry related experience. Faculty hold bachelors degrees, masters degrees, or doctorate degrees depending upon the requirements of the institution. Three to five years of industry experience may be required. Some faculty appointments are not on the tenure track, because those faculty are expected to teach and to provide service to the institution and community. Tenure-track faculty who hold are required to conduct research and to publish as well as to teach and to perform community service. These faculty received and incorporate much of their traditional classroom training skills in their pedagogy from their previous

undergraduate and graduate school experience. Understanding the faculty perceptions of distance learning will allow administrators of continuing education programs to use that information in developing faculty members who want to instruct using distance learning. Therefore, the purpose of this research was to uncover perceptions of HRIM faculty with regard to the adoption of distance learning. Distance learning is a new concept in extending the traditional classroom for administrators, faculty, and students. This type of study has been performed on other faculty in various disciplines, but it has not been initiated to research HRIM faculty's perceptions of distance learning. This study will provide an insight of HRIM faculty perceptions of distance learning that will encourage or discourage its development. Therefore the research question for this qualitative research is "How does motivation and reward (intrinsic and extrinsic) of faculty effect HRIM faculty perceptions of distance learning?"

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ON FACULTY MOTIVATION AND REWARD TO PARTICIPATE IN DISTANCE LEARNING

The researcher interviewed twelve HRIM faculty members at universities throughout the United States. Initial interviewees were obtained from the researcher's review of articles published in The Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education's (CHRIE) *The Communique* and *The Hospitality Educator*. Both of these publications are clearing houses for current information and pedagogical practices in HRIM. Additional interviewees were obtained through a snowball technique which relied upon referrals by various HRIM faculty. All interviewees were full-time faculty members in HRIM and were classified as Users or Non-Users of distance learning because of their use or non-use of distance learning pedagogy. None of the interviewees were members of administration. Interviews were conducted in person at the Annual CHRIE Conference in Providence, RI, during August 4 -10, 1997 and via telephone from August to October, 1997. All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed to aid in the researcher's evaluation of data. Interviews followed a predetermined format which would invoke perceptions of distance learning from those HRIM faculty who had used distance learning and those who had not used distance learning. The interview format was based upon faculty perceptions of distance learning found in the literature. Transcripts of voice tapes and listening to voice tapes were examined by using a matrix which was based upon concepts from the literature review. A researcher's reflective journal was maintained to assist in clarifying concepts. A review of supporting data included information on distance learning, faculty background, administration and admission, faculty senate minutes, and newsletters; this supporting information was available through university publications and Internet sites. These techniques were used to avoid interviewer bias.

INTRINSIC INCENTIVES: IT'S FOR ME AND THE STUDENTS

Questions concerning users' and non-users' knowledge of use of computers, the Internet, etc., as well as the appeal of reaching more students, both through the use of technology and to reinvigorate their commitment to teaching were used to raise perceptions of intrinsic motivations to participate in distance learning. Responses were consistent about the importance of having knowledge of computers and they were looked upon as a resource in the department for technology or distance learning. Mixed responses were received about reaching more students as it affected their participation in distance learning. Likewise, the responses about the possibility of reinvigorating their commitment to teaching through use of technology and reaching more students varied. Non users' responses indicated that knowledge of computers affected their perception of distance learning and reaching more students appealed to their professional commitment to teaching. Selected responses which highlight the intrinsic incentives are as follows.

> Professor A-1 (User) said that he felt he was
> . . . more valuable to the department . . . [because] I can share with people now and they don't have to go through; I went through an awful lot of technobabble that I didn't really have to, but now that I know how to use this stuff, you get to the point where a lot of it becomes a lot more intuitive.

He indicated that use of technology in reaching more students has reinvigorated his commitment to teaching. "It really has. I don't know if I felt like I was getting stale, but I felt like I wasn't - there

was something missing. So, it's been exciting." Professor C-1 (User) said that reaching more students affects her participation in distance learning as she explains.

> I thought, "gosh, isn't it something to think that we could make this possible for people who would have no other way to do it" and, by the way, that's the kind of how I feel about it. I think it's not as good as coming in and sitting in a classroom and listening to each other and asking questions right then and there, but for people who can't do that, I think it is a wonderful opportunity.

Distance learning reinvigorates her commitment to teaching. "And in my case, our university is very homogeneous, but distance ed[ucation students] are heterogeneous. So I like that. Different ages, different stages." Professor G-1 (User) indicated distance learning did not reinvigorate his commitment to distance learning because of his personal background; he's "...always had a high desire to provide the best possible instruction that I could, so I see this as just continuing that type of philosophy that I have." Professor B-2's (Non User) response to the question concerning having knowledge of use of computers, the Internet, etc. and its effect upon participation in distance learning with "Oh it helps. I think it makes me more open-minded. That I don't have to have the students in front of me, face-to-face to take care of the questions. I can use other media to get through to them or that they can reach me." Professor C-2 (Non User) found technology to be an intrusion into his style of teaching. However, he found reaching more students appealed to his professional commitment to teaching. "Yes, there are midlife career people, people who want to enhance their skills, people who have experience and no degree." Professor G-2 (Non User) indicated that having knowledge of use of computers, the Internet does affect participation in distance learning. "Oh it affects it a lot, because it reduces the learning curve substantially. If I didn't know any of it, the barrier would be substantially higher and I would have to ask should I bother even thinking about all this." He went on to say that reaching more students appealed to his professional commitment to teaching. "Well, I'm I don't think we can simply have quantity without quality. So, I would not like to compromise quality for the sake of quantity. But I do believe that the present technologies of Internet and so on can indeed be successfully used to have greater needs without compromising quality. And in fact, perhaps even increasing quality."

EXTRINSIC INCENTIVES: SMALL CARROTS

Users of distance learning received a variety of extrinsic motivations to use distance learning including nothing, small stipend, stipend to the department, reduced teaching load, and a large financial offering. Non-users' perceptions of extrinsic motivations were similar: nothing, recognition within the department, reprieve from some teaching-related responsibilities, grant possibilities, no reduced teaching load, but dollars given to department, no reduced teaching load, but money given to the user of distance learning, and funding earmarked for the user of distance learning with reduced teaching load. Selected interviewees' responses include the following.

Professors A-1, C-1, and G-1 indicated there were no extrinsic motivations to participate in distance learning. Professor C-1 said, "I didn't feel there were--I didn't think we had a choice. I didn't think there were any carrots out there. If you will do this, then that. It was let's decide together if we want to do this, and if we do, we do it because it's the way of the future; it's the next stage for us." Professor B-1 (User) was offered a small stipend, but cautioned it was not a motivator to all. She said

> No, there's no reduced teaching load. There's a small stipend for our distance learning. You will be compensated for teaching a distance learning course throughout the semester. But I don't think anybody was motivated to teach because of that. The comments I hear is that 'I would rather not take that money than not teach it'.

Professor D-1 (User) said that a new policy is in effect which gives the user of distance learning a stipend which went to the department that goes for transparencies. She felt that wouldn't be enough for her to participate. However, when she started to use distance learning, she received a reduction in workload. Professor I-1 (User) received "a healthy [financial] bump for teaching additionally." Professors G-2 and I-2 (both Non Users) said no money was forthcoming for participation in distance learning. Professor G-2 comments on extrinsic motivations that his department uses to urge faculty to participate in distance learning.

> They don't. See, that is the problem. The department is saying, "Well [faculty members

> in distance learning] . . . . so long as the money is coming from outside, well and good." But we don't have the money to support this kind of stuff. Technology is an expensive proposition. So the department on the whole would like to do this stuff, they can see the benefit of it, but the hard fact of it is there's very few discretionary dollars out there. That is the problem.

Professor I-2 said that money is not offered, but it is more recognition within the department. "the faculty here view this as this is what we need to be good, to stay ahead." Professor A-2 (Non User) said there was a reprieve from teaching-related duties.

> I imagine that the teachers that do have the [distance learning] classes probably are given a little reprieve in what is expected of them throughout the semester and I don't really know for sure what that is but . . . . Well maybe one less class, one less [main campus] class, maybe less advising duties, because advising is kind of divvied up among the staff. Maybe one less board to sit on.

ADVICE TO A COLLEAGUE: BE REALISTIC

The conflict between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to participate in distance learning are clarified with reports on what users of distance learning would say to non users of distance learning and what non users of distance learning think users of distance learning would indicate. Users were asked to respond to a question that would summon their advice to a colleague about participation in distance learning. Likewise non-users were asked to respond to a question which would elicit the pro's and con's from a user of distance learning in their department. The theme from both users and non users were 'be realistic.' Selected responses include the following. Professor C-1 responded

> [I would say to them] "You have to be real prepared," and "That it's not all wonderful, but it has its attributes or characteristics." It's different. I think some people want to do everything the same way over and over and over all their lives, but not many of us. Most of us, although we might be dragged into it kicking and screaming, do like change eventually. We need some variety.

She also comments on distance learners "[They] are not like that [confrontational, more demanding, angry, ill-prepared for college, and don't know who to blame it on]. I think part of it is their age and their opportunity." Professor D-1 discussed her recommendations to another colleague on using compressed video, she said

> It would all be the "time things." It would be about the personalities of the persons who are in charge of the infrastructure because that's important to know. I would talk to them about how they might want to structure their courses. I'd talk to them about the downsides in terms of the time, the infrastructure glitches, and I'd talk to them about the upsides [touching another life]. I would tell them about the potential good stuff and also that I feel that this [is] the future and they're going to be a step ahead.

Professor I-1 said he would tell a faculty member who was anti-distance learning, "I would tell them that . . . it makes you a better instructor because it forces you to become more organized. It has to be a commitment by the faculty member. It's a new format." Professor B-2, indicated that her colleagues who had used distance learning would respond positively and include comments on the mechanics of delivering a course through distance learning. Professor C-2 said it "makes you examine your teaching. It helps you be a better instructor. The negative features are time, time." Professor G-2 felt he would receive a positive response from instructors who used distance learning and adds, "but having done it, they're well aware of the limitations of it and would point out that it's not necessarily a panacea for all ills . . . You have to structure it and a lot of students need substantially more structure and can not handle the autonomy which is given them in such a system."

TRIANGULATION OF SOURCES

A review of various web sites of the U.S. universities where those professors were located support the lack of extrinsic motivation to do distance learning. University C (where Professors C-1 and C-2 are located) gives no additional consideration for teaching a distance learning course in workload computation as listed in the collective bargaining agreement. However, University G (where Professors g-1 and G-2 are located) provided over $12,000 in grants for

development of distance learning to faculty (no departmental affiliation listed). A Senate resolution was passed at University D (where Professors D-1 and D-2 are located) which encouraged recognition of creative or innovative use of technology for promotion and tenure reviews. Minutes from the Senate located at University B (where Professors B-1 and B-2 are located) reported the President's concern that funding for providing technical support to assist faculty who want to use technology and distance learning was not adequate.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this research support the spirit of some of the previously reported information on faculty perceptions of distance learning. Goodwin, Miklich and Overall's (1993) finding that intrinsic motivation such as instructional method, enjoyment of the learning experience for faculty and students, flexibility of instructional method, and opportunity to teach enriched students in the program were found as reasons for faculty to participate in distance learning. Likewise, Dillon and Walsh's (1992) report on lack of extrinsic motivators by their academic departments was found in some instances. However, Dillon and Walsh (1992) and Billings, et al. (1994) urging that if time spent on distance learning is unrewarded, then participation in distance learning is unlikely was not found. The findings of this research indicate that HRIM faculty (Users) who participate in distance learning do so, not for extrinsic rewards, but because of intrinsic motivations.

Additional findings of this research reveal a concern for the appropriate audience for distance learning. Comments such as "[distance learning] makes this possible for people who would have no other way to do it;" "different ages, different stages;" "I can use other media to get through to them or that they can reach me;" "midlife career people, people who want to enhance their skills; people who have experience and no degree" indicate that HRIM faculty see a group of people who may be attracted to distance learning.

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Refereed Papers

LISTENING TO WORKPLACE TRAINERS: WHAT'S WRONG WITH OUR TRAIN-THE-TRAINER PROGRAMS?

Katherine V. Beauchemin

ABSTRACT

As more and more organizations rely on line employees to serve as trainers, the quality of train-the-trainer programs become increasingly important. The paradigm of the train-the-trainer program is well-circumscribed. It typically focuses on program content, presentation, and practice under nearly ideal conditions. But how well do these programs service the line employee-trainer? This paper presents the results of interviews with line trainers in a manufacturing setting. It indicates what trainers themselves consider important and offers suggestions for making train-the-trainer programs meaningful to trainers.

INTRODUCTION

Matt is an operator with 30 years' experience in a manufacturing organization. Two years ago Matt added the role of technical trainer to his other job responsibilities. Matt and his supervisor report that since he began serving as a trainer, Matt has become "100% more confident, more articulate, and a more valuable member of [his] team." Once so nervous about speaking in front of a group that he would suffer "palpitations and sweaty palms," Matt is now "fired up and ready to take on as much training as possible." He adds, "the whole experience has been great!"

Like Matt, Salvatore began serving as a technical trainer two years ago, after almost three decades with the organization. Initially enthusiastic about training, Salvatore found his satisfaction diminished substantially when he was confronted with a hostile trainee in his second training group. "I did my best to help [the trainee]," Salvatore recalled, "but it didn't work. It took a toll on both of us." The trainee's frustration, coupled with Salvatore's own sense of failure, convinced him that training was not for him after all. "I was all excited and pumped up," he said. "Then it all fell apart. I guess I felt disillusioned, and after a while I got real discouraged. Finally, I just wanted out." Six months ago Salvatore left the organization for another job, taking with him years of valuable experience.

Both of these stories are true; only the names have been changed. They represent both ends of the range of responses expressed during surveys and interviews with line employees serving as technical trainers in a manufacturing organization. Their insights are important because as more and more organizations downsize their training departments and rely on line employees to serve as trainers, employees' reactions to the training experience become increasingly significant. How can we prepare employees for the training experience to help ensure they are ready to take on the challenges that will face them when they become trainers? This paper examines what workplace trainers have told us about training and how we can help promote better outcomes for the trainers, the trainees, and the organization.

THE PARTICIPANTS AND THE PROGRAM

Participants in the research were ten manufacturing operators who served as workplace trainers and the trainers' managers. The operators became trainers after serving as Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) during training program development. Managers chose employees for the role of SME/trainer on the basis of employees' expertise with the equipment and their expressed interest in training. All the employees had been their manager's first choice as SME/trainer.

All the employees held at least a high school diploma and one or more technical certifications. Nine of the ten trainers were men. Experience at the site among all trainers ranged from 10 to 30 years.

The most experienced trainers had conducted programs for three years; the least experienced, for seven months. All had conducted training programs during the past year. Only two of the trainers had served as trainers in the past. All trainers participated in a 3-day train-the-trainer program before conducting the training.

The training programs were eight- to ten-day basic qualification programs on process equipment. The programs were 40% classroom-based and 60% hands-on instruction. Qualification requirements included passing written and performance-based tests to ensure trainees had the knowledge and skill required to operate the equipment.

WHAT REALLY MATTERS TO TRAINERS?

Surveys and interviews with trainers and their managers indicated that becoming a trainer was a watershed event in the lives of nine of the employees. In six cases trainers cited positive changes in their perception of their jobs and workgroups as a result of the training. In three cases perceptions of jobs and workgroups became more negative after the training. Most important, the key differentiator in whether the experience was perceived as positive or negative was the trainees' reaction to the training.

Trainers who found the experience satisfying cited the progress made by trainees and the appreciation trainees expressed as key reasons for their changes in perception. Conversely, trainers who found the experience unsatisfactory focused on a small number of trainees, usually one or two in a group of eight to ten, whom the facilitator found hostile or indifferent to the training. These trainees, in the words of one trainer, "ruined the experience" for him, even though they represented only a fraction of the employees he had trained. Two of the three trainers who reported dissatisfaction with the training left the organization, citing their negative feelings about the training as a primary reason for their defection.

The importance trainers placed on trainees' reaction to the training is not surprising. In fact, it is consistent with Brookfield's (1995) assertion that the presence of even one hostile participant can undermine the quality of the entire experience for an instructor or facilitator. Brookfield notes that even the most seasoned teachers are likely to be unnerved by resistant participants. No wonder, then, that trainers with little or no previous experience with training placed significant emphasis on the trainees' responses to the trainers' presentations.

At the same time, though, most technical train-the-trainer programs tend to bypass the human aspect of the experience and focus almost exclusively on the behaviorist aspects of instruction, specifying how to work toward desired outcomes and measure trainee performance. Marsick (1990) describes how problems are likely to surface when only the behaviorist view of training is incorporated into training:

> The barrier erected in many U.S. competency-based programs. . .separates the 'objective,' job-related knowledge. . .and the 'subjective' understanding of 'who I am as a person'. . .[but] becoming more competent at tasks often touches on deep personal questions and requires an examination of the 'way things are done around here'. . . instrumental tasks as technical as learning to use a new computer or run new machine-shop equipment may bring to light questions that are not discussed in class, about one's self-confidence or about organizational norms regarding rewards (p. 38).

When operators become facilitators, these emotionally charged, subjective issues may involve not just trainees but the trainers themselves. In this way the so-called objective world of technical training is framed by human emotions around areas not usually considered in trainer-preparation programs. The dislocation between what is designed to be an objective process and the emotional undercurrent of some training sessions proves difficult indeed for certain trainers and may make their experiences especially painful ones.

THE PARADIGMATIC TRAIN-THE-TRAINER PROGRAM

The paradigm of the train-the-trainer program is well-circumscribed (Dick & Carey, 1994). It includes a review of the program trainers will be presenting, a discussion of adult learning theory, and practice under nearly ideal conditions. This summarizes the 3-day train-the-trainer attended by the trainers participating in the study as described below .

TRAIN-THE-TRAINER SESSION

Day One

1. Introduction and overview of the train-the-trainer program.
2. Review of the materials: leader's and participant's guides.
3. Introduction to adult learning theory.
4. The role of the trainer.
5. Presentation skills:
   - conducting training in the classroom
   - using overhead transparencies
   - conducting on-the-job demonstrations
   - encouraging interaction/asking questions
   - handling different situations
   - conducting evaluations

Day Two

6. Administering performance demonstrations.
7. Preparation and practice (trainers prepare and conduct a 45-minute presentation and a 30-minute tour from the program. The presentation is videotaped).

Day Three

8. Continue practice.
9. Individual feedback to trainers.
10. Wrap-up and evaluation

As this model suggests, topics such as understanding and dealing with trainee resistance are likely to be given little consideration in most trainer-preparation programs, yet it is precisely these human issues that are likely to derail even the most technically competent trainer once the training is underway. Indeed, in the train-the-trainer session attended by the trainers in the study, dealing with trainee hostility represented approximately 30 minutes of a 24-hour training session. One result was that trainers who faced hostile trainees felt adrift and unprepared when trainees challenged them during the training.

MAKING TRAIN-THE-TRAINER PROGRAMS WORK

REVISING THE AGENDA

Listening to workplace trainers suggests that our train-the-trainer programs need to include a consideration of the possible ranges of response among trainees, including hostile or resistant participants, to help ensure trainers are prepared for trainees' reactions to the training. Discussing the causes of trainee resistance, including fear of failure and resentment toward co-workers-turner-trainers can help trainers develop and maintain a perspective on hostile trainees.

Similarly, incorporating role-play and problem-solving activities around difficult trainer-trainee situations will better prepare trainers for the problems they are likely to encounter in the workplace. One such role-play based on an actual situation presented by a trainer is described. below.

ROLE-PLAY
Trainee's Role:

Yesterday you completed a written test on troubleshooting and you're feeling pretty angry. Maybe you didn't pay as much attention as you could have when the trainer was going over the material, but you didn't think it was all that important. After all, you know most of the troubleshooting procedures for this equipment already. In your view, this training is just an unnecessary formality. But when you got hit with that written test, you realized that your methods weren't necessarily the ones the trainer had gone over in class.

Now you are going to see the trainer about the test. You want him/her to discount the results. Everyone knows that you're a good employee who knows his/her stuff. The test doesn't show it, though. And while you're at it, you want to tell the trainer that his/her way of doing things isn't the only way to do them.

Trainer's Role

You've just checked _____'s troubleshooting written test and you're disturbed by the results. The trainee scored only 65 on the test, but everyone else scored 85 or higher. You've noticed that _____ has been inattentive during class, never volunteering answers or participating in the activities. This is too bad, because he/she is a solid employee with good skills. The problem is that _____ has his/her own way of doing things, and that way isn't always the best practice. Now he/she is coming to see you about the test. You can't change the grade, but you can re-administer the test. More important, you want to get the employee engaged in the training process. How will you do it?

These additions to the agenda should constitute at least one-third of the program and be incorporated into trainers' practice and presentations.

DEVELOPING ONGOING SUPPORT FOR TRAINERS

Train-the-trainer programs tend to end once and for all when the session is over. Yet this study suggests that a lack of ongoing support for trainers places both the trainers and the organization at risk. Workplace trainers are usually selected for their roles based on their proficiency in their jobs and their willingness to take on the responsibility of trainer. In organizations such as the one under study, operator/ trainers were the top performers in their areas, conscientious employees who spent considerable time learning and delivering training programs. Since trainers were selected on the basis of their excellent performance, it makes sense that these employees took their training responsibilities seriously and that they reacted with sensitivity to the response of their trainees.

Brookfield (1995) proposes a series of remedies designed to provide support systems for facilitators, including maintaining logs to record reflections about teaching and participating in structured group sessions to share experiences with other trainers. Although these steps seem simple enough, many organizations have yet to recognize the value in implementing them. The arguments against these programs range from "too time-consuming" to "too expensive," when in fact they represent a fraction of the time and expense spent in developing the training programs and preparing trainers to lead them. The actual resistance may be located in the fact that follow-up and support for trainers is simply viewed as unnecessary by many managers. Yet this study suggests that far from being superfluous, ongoing support for workplace trainers needs to be structured into our train-the-trainer programs help ensure their success.

CONCLUSION

Trainers are agents of change. As such they encounter all the obstacles and rewards associated with any attempt to challenge or modify the deeply held beliefs and age-old practices of a group. This is true even in (or perhaps especially in) technical training, where emotional elements are likely to intrude into the process despite the best efforts of program designers to remove them. Yet

the validated lesson plans, objective tests, and performance-based demonstrations that are the hallmarks of technical training represent only part, and perhaps not the most important part, of the training process. We need to help our trainers succeed in the training process by providing them with train-the-trainer programs that address the issues that concern trainers so deeply.

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LEISURE TRAVEL AS ADULT EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine to what extent learning is a meaningful component of leisure travel among a population of senior-aged travelers. The study was conducted over a three-month period in the winter and spring of 1997. A 30-question survey was mailed to 50 senior-aged men and women, all of them leisure travelers. Participants remained anonymous. Survey questions were designed to assess self-directed, experiential, and transformational learning as they relate to travel. Findings of this study showed that older travelers do indeed have an expectation of learning, that they prepare for learning during travel, that they believe the learning they experience during actual travel is unique, and that travel can result in perspective transformation. Implications for practitioners in the field of adult education include introducing travel-study abroad programs similar to those offered to traditional-aged students, encouraging students to analyze their travel experiences as a way of helping to determine their learning style, and aiding older learners in developing an appreciation for travel as an enjoyable and natural way to learn.

INTRODUCTION

Since the days when well-born young men took a Grand Tour to cap their education, travel has been understood to be an important learning experience. A first-hand acquaintance with architecture and art, customs and manners, has continued to enrich the lives of adults. In the United States, travel and tourism are projected to rank as the number one retail industry by the millennium.

Today, one of the most significant and interesting groups of travelers are elders, the senior citizens who have the leisure time to enjoy travel. Senior citizens bring to travel a lifetime of experience; furthermore, their increased life expectancy brings with it increased expectations for learning and life-enhancing activity.

The idea of recreational travel as a form of adult education has been only peripherally addressed in the literature. Tough (1971) discusses his participants' travel experiences within the context of self-directed learning; more recently, Mezirow (1990), in his workshops, uses his own travel to illustrate transformational learning. It is becoming increasingly evident that travel undertaken by adults primarily for pleasure fulfills many of the criteria for experiential, self-directed, and transformational learning as these are understood by today's adult educators and theorists. No study has yet been done which quantifies data relating specifically to the educational experiences of the older leisure traveler.

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine to what extent learning is a meaningful component of travel among a population of senior-aged leisure travelers. The following research questions were posed:

1. To what extent do travelers prepare for a learning experience prior to travel?
2. To what extent do travelers seek a learning experience through study about the history, geography, culture, etc. of the place(s) to be visited?
3. To what extent do travelers report that learning took place during the travel experience?
4. To what extent do travelers report that they were changed in any way by the travel experience?

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Searches of sources published within the past five years revealed that adult individual and group travel as a specifically educational endeavor is an emerging subject of inquiry. For instance, a review of Dissertation Abstracts yielded three directly relevant theses, all completed in the past three years. An article on international travel and study programs includes a discussion of non-traditional and non-credit programs (Reghenzani, 1991). Moreover, several recent books (House, 1991; Leed, 1991) also indicate that travel as a form of adult education is a worthy subject for investigation.

However, the database search demonstrated that this is a topic in its infancy. A review of ERIC yielded only one relevant journal article, although the bibliography of that particular article led to other adult education journals. Broadening the search of academic journals to include the Social Science Index as well as Sociology Abstracts and visiting university and public libraries for books proved successful.

In the past several decades travel and education have been paired at many universities under the auspices of undergraduate study abroad programs. While this component of educational programs has been widely accepted as a vehicle for personal and professional development among traditional age students (Carlson, Burn, Unseem, & Yachimowicz, 1990), credit granted to adult reentry students for study abroad is a fairly new concept (Reghenzani, 1991). Nevertheless, studies by Peterson (1980) and House (1991) allude to the growth of travel-study programs offered by continuing education departments at universities; one example is an educational tour of World War II sites developed by the University of Texas.

More recently the link between travel and education for adults has been further strengthened through university extension groups, alumni groups, senior citizen groups, and Elderhostel (Peterson, 1980). Stubblefield and Keane (1994) mention museums as yet another institution with an educational thrust and conclude that the proliferation of museums has provided a reason to travel. The concept of travel education extends to the business world, too, as internationally linked workplaces create a need for cross-cultural training (York, 1993).

METHODOLOGY

Respondents were over the age of 62. Their educational levels ranged from high school through graduate study. All were within a comparable range of income, that is to say, financially secure enough to travel frequently but not obviously or ostentatiously wealthy. All meet the criterion of leisure travelers, i.e. those who have traveled for recreational purposes. Thus, the sample obtained was heterogeneous for geography and educational level, but homogeneous for age, income level, and most important, travel experience.

The research instrument was the survey (see Appendix). The first two survey questions were demographic, establishing gender and level of education. Questions 3 through 29 were designed using a Likert Scale. Question 3 established the degree to which the participant expected learning to take place as part of travel. Questions 4 through 9, 18 through 20, 22, and 23 addressed self-directed learning, i.e. the degree to which travelers prepare to have a learning experience during a projected trip. Questions 10 through 17 and question 21 addressed experiential and serendipitous learning. Finally, questions 24 through 29 addressed transformational learning, dealing with changes in the traveler's perspectives or lifestyle brought about by travel. Question 30 was open-ended, allowing respondents to convey anecdotal information about a significant travel learning experience.

FINDINGS

Frequency and percentage were computed for the demographic questions on the survey, questions 1 and 2. Of those responding, ten were men (26%) and 28 were women (74%). Question 2 addressed educational level: Of those responding, 24 (63%) were high school graduates and 14 (37%) were college graduates.

A *t*-test was performed for questions 3-29, the Likert Scale questions, to determine whether there was any significant difference in responses based on gender or level of education.

Question 3, the first Likert Scale question, was general. It asked participants to gauge the degree of their expectation that travel will involve learning: "When I travel, I expect to learn something." The mean response was 4.08, with 4 being the "Almost always" response on the Likert Scale, and 5 the "Always" response.

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

Questions 4-9, 18-20, and 22-23 assessed the degree to which participants actively seek out educational materials about their destination prior to travel . Questions 4 through 9 asked if participants read guidebooks and other materials, if they learned any of the language of the place they were planning to visit, and if they sought information about the history, geography, arts, customs and social life of the destination. Questions 18 through 20 addressed the style of travel that participants might choose to facilitate learning during travel. Questions 22 and 23 addressed the mode of travel (private car versus train or motorcoach) that participants might choose to facilitate learning.

The respondents indicated that they often consult guidebooks (X=3.74), and only slightly less often consult other materials preparatory to travel (X=3.29). They rarely attempt to learn the language when traveling to a foreign destination (X=1.90). In regard to the style of travel, respondents showed a preference for guided tours as well as combined guided and independent travel to facilitate learning; strictly independent travel ranked lower (X=2.58). Responses were nearly evenly divided between preference for travel by car versus by train or coach.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The highest-ranked activity within the set of questions relating to learning experiences during travel was visiting the historic sites at one's destination (X=3.98). Museums and walking tours ranked just below historic sites in popularity. Responses to the "do as the Romans do" question indicated that respondents often try to blend with the culture of the destination (X=3.42). While respondents somewhat agreed that they learn what they expected to learn (X=3.37), they even more strongly agreed that they learn things they did not expect to learn (X=3.68). Finally, they believe that going to a place is more educational than reading about it could ever be (X=4.37).

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEARNING

While the mean of the responses to four of the six questions relating to transformational learning fall within the 3.00+ range, an examination of the mode indicates that participants most often either agree or disagree that they have been changed by their travel experiences, not that they are unsure of whether this change has occurred. For example, the mode for question 24 regarding travel having changed one's ideas about human nature was "agree." This was also the case for changes in participants' ideas about history and culture and about art and architecture. On the other hand, the mode for the questions regarding changes in one's ideas about music, one's philosophy of life, and how one lives one's daily life was "disagree."

GENDER AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL DIFFERENCE

A *t*-test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference in responses between men and women and between high-school and college graduates. Responses to three questions, two in the gender category and one in the educational category, showed a significant difference in responses. On question 11, women were more likely than men to visit art and archeological museums. On question 23, women were more likely than men to choose travel by train or coach. On question 26, high school graduates agreed more strongly than college graduates that travel contributed to a change in their philosophy of life.

The last question, question 30, was open-ended: "Please write a few sentences about the trip that you think provided you with the most significant learning experience." Of the 48 surveys returned, 31 included responses to this question. Six respondents provided more in-depth reports about one particular learning experience in conjunction with travel. These were more philosophical and reflective in nature. Included were phrases like " a life of despair" in reference to Northern peoples' ability to survive in a harsh climate, and an observation that "the place we leave behind is not the

place we came to." One woman college graduate wrote about an encounter with Masai warriors, an experience she treasures decades later as a reminder of a "more rewarding day."

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the study indicated that senior-aged leisure travelers almost always have an expectation to learn while traveling. This concept was further borne out by the application of learning theory to activities related to travel, specifically, three styles of learning (self-directed, experiential, transformational) as they have been identified by adult educators. For example, participants in the present study indicated that they often consult guidebooks and related materials in order to prepare for travel. While this confirmed that the respondents are self-directed learners, other responses revealed that they nevertheless welcome guidance while traveling in order to maximize learning.

The set of questions relating to styles of travel (independent vs. guided) and modes of travel (private car vs. train or motorcoach) were included in the findings as part of the self-directed learning section. The reasoning was that participants sought out styles and modes of travel that could be expected to maximize learning. However, these questions also relate to experiential learning, since they describe the conditions under which participants may have learned best during their travel experiences. An interesting light was cast on the nature of experiential learning by one of the respondents, who crossed out the word "learn" in several questions, substituting the word "experience". He wrote a note on the survey form to the effect that "I don't travel to learn, I travel to experience." Perhaps most important in this section was the item about traveling to a place versus reading about it: Participants tended toward strong agreement with the statement that there is no substitute for actually experiencing a destination.

One of the most significant aspects of the survey was the transformational component: It revealed that travelers tended to agree that specific travel activities result in perspective transformation, i.e. respondents changed their ideas about art, architecture, history, and culture as a direct result of travel. In other words, people have a definite expectation that travel will teach them something; this expectation has often been confirmed in the experience of people old enough to have traveled and reflected upon their travel; and the traveling they have done has resulted in some ways in the kind of learning that actually changed their lives.

The findings showed that high school graduates are more likely than college graduates to believe that certain travel experiences have changed their philosophy of life. However, the responses to the open-ended question, asking participants to discuss a trip that provided the most significant learning experience, revealed that college graduates were more likely to provide articulate, reflective, and concrete information about such a transformative experience. The six surveys that included vivid recollections of specific travel learning experiences also showed almost unanimously strong agreement with the questions relating to transformational learning.

The findings from this study suggest implications for practitioners in the fields of travel and adult education. Within the travel industry, it is clear that tour operators need to market existing programs and create new programs with an educational component. Examples might include cruise lines offering lecture series and practical classes or guided tours with specific themes, like a literary tour of France or England. Adult education practitioners, especially program planners, might investigate introducing travel-study abroad programs similar to those offered to traditional-aged students. In the adult education classroom, practitioners might include encouraging students to describe and analyze their travel experiences as a way of helping them to determine their learning style. More generally, practitioners can themselves be encouraged to aid older learners in developing an appreciation for travel as an enjoyable and natural way to learn, albeit one that requires a certain standard of living and good health.

An examination of the larger implications suggests, first, that the same level of investigative rigor that has been brought to the evaluation of the widely accepted undergraduate, year-abroad programs should now be applied to adult educational travel. Such an undertaking would be perhaps most

feasible in settings such as Elderhostel and other structured group programs. In-depth debriefing of travelers and the adult educators who escort them on these programs would further contribute an evaluative element to the subject. Still another avenue of inquiry would examine how the travel experience translates into the traveler's personal, professional, and community life. Such a study would attempt to determine how travel contributes to a global perspective that can be realized in a local setting.

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APPENDIX: TRAVEL SURVEY

1. Male____ Female____
2. Educational level: _____High School Graduate _____College Graduate

Please answer all the questions. Circle the number that is closest to your experience or to the way that you feel about the question. Use this scale:

Never	Seldom	Often	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5

3. When I travel I expect to learn something.
4. When I'm planning a trip, I read a guidebook about my destination(s).
5. When I'm planning a trip, I read material other than a guidebook (books, newspaper and magazine articles, etc.) about my destination(s).
6. When I'm planning a trip out of the country, I learn some of the language of that country.
7. I learn about the history and geography of the places I plan to visit.
8. I learn about some of the arts (music, painting and sculpture, literature, crafts) of the places I plan to visit.
9. I learn about the customs and social life of the countries I plan to visit.
10. At my destination, I visit the important historic sites.
11. At my destination, I visit art and/or archeological museums.
12. At my destination, I attend performances of plays and/or concerts.
13. When I am traveling, I "do as the Romans do"; I follow local customs and forms of social interaction.
14. When I travel, I learn about a city by taking a walking tour.
15. When I travel, I like to visit the countryside to learn about the local plants, animals, birds, etc.
16. When I travel, I learn the things I expected to learn.
17. When I travel, I learn all sorts of things I did not expect to learn.

For the following questions, please use this scale:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

18. I learn best when I travel with a group and a guide rather than on my own.
19. I learn best when I combine independent travel with some guided tours.
20. I learn best when I travel independently.
21. For me, seeing a place is more educational than reading about it could ever be.
22. I learn more about a place if I have a car and can travel at my own pace.
23. Traveling by train or bus lets me learn more about the place and the people.
24. I have had at least one travel experience that made me change an idea I had about human nature.
25. I have had at least one travel experience that made me change my views about history or culture.
26. I have had at least one travel experience that changed something about my personal philosophy of life.
27. I have had at least one travel experience that changed my appreciation of art or architecture.
28. I have had at least one travel experience that changed my appreciation of music.
29. I have had at least one travel experience that made me change something about the way I live
    my life at home.
30. Please write a few sentences about the trip that you think provided you with the most significant learning experience. You may write on the back of this sheet.

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ADMINISTERING DISTANCE LEARNING: FROM PLANNING TO SERVING STUDENT NEEDS AND EVALUATING OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Continuing and higher education has moved beyond the initial appeal of using distance learning technology itself, to the realization that the real value is in providing access to quality educational opportunity. As the use of distance learning expands rapidly, all involved are challenged to create learning systems and environments which consider the needs of the students, faculty, academic disciplines, and the institutions itself. For distance learning to be truly successful, educators must focus on the program development, coordination and planning, and evaluative aspects of its use. A major consideration must be evaluating the quality of student service as well as the learning outcomes as inter-related variables.

This paper presents a case study of the experience of Temple University in implementing distance learning for adult students. The focus is on the Harrisburg Campus, a graduate center for working adults, and provides the perspective of the distance location to the program development, implementation and evaluation effort. Of particular importance are strategies for evaluating student service to ensure student acceptance and success.

INTRODUCTION

Technology-based education is not the wave of the future, it is the reality of today. Good teaching is enhanced through the use of technology, and adults' natural preference for self-directedness and experiences relevant to personal and professional needs can be fostered if the technology is employed well.

Adult educators, particularly those in university-based settings, are increasingly called upon to go beyond the traditional functions associated with program development and administration of educational offerings, to the use of various technologies to reach adult populations. In our expanded roles, we must be able to superimpose technology-based systems on program development efforts. Our ability to master associated competencies shows great promise in moving our field to the mainstream of educational efforts, as more traditional educational systems are less relevant for meeting society's need for lifelong learning.

This paper will focus on a case study of the Temple University Harrisburg campus in implementing expanded distance educational opportunities for graduate students. The University began using compressed video technology in 1992 between two of its campuses for one graduate program. Since that time, it has expanded the use of the technology to four campuses and encompasses graduate programs in five disciplines. We have now developed on-line courses at both the undergraduate and graduate level to augment student access to learning opportunities. During the past five years, the University has progressed from marginal interest in technology-based education to a greatly expanded commitment to the process and outcomes involved in distance learning. Of particular interest, is the collaboration and communication with various academic and telecommunications departments in this effort. An analysis of our experience will be contrasted with the literature in the field.

OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this paper is to use a case study as a means of exploring the program development, implementation, and evaluation issues surrounding teaching adult learners, especially graduate

students, using distance learning technologies. A specific focus will be on the perspectives of administrators and students in the distance location as they relate to the "home campus". The specific objectives of the paper are to:

1. Briefly review the literature focusing on issues such as where best to use the technology, and the advantages or limitations of technology-based education.

2. Explore program development concepts of distance learning from the perspective of the distance location, including such issues as assessing needs, coordinating, planning, and evaluating learning activities and student service.

3. Discuss one case example of a university using distance learning technologies for graduate education for working adults.

THE LITERATURE

A number of noted educators have written extensively about distance education or distance learning, and particularly focus on the increasing use of technology in assuring access to quality educational opportunities (Cyrs and Smith, 1990; Evans and Nation, 1989; Froke, 1994, 1995; Garrison, 1989; Merriam & Cunningham, 1989; Moore, 1990; Rossman & Rossman, 1996; Verduin & Clark, 1991). Through this body of literature, one realizes that distance education is a viable means of providing learning opportunities to a wide variety of learners who might otherwise be constrained by time, place, travel cost, or other barriers to traditional methods of education. Thus, increasing access and removing barriers to the educational process are two of the most compelling arguments in support of distance learning. As our societal dependence on technology increases, we are at risk for creating a class of "educational have-nots", and the use of technology allows for a working together of interested parties to avoid such a creation.

One of the greatest advantages of using distance learning technologies is its potential for creating a paradigm shift from teaching to putting the learner at the center of the model. This shift should call out to the very soul of every adult educator who has longed to see the goal of student-centered learning adopted throughout the academic world. Evans and Nation (1989) are eloquent in urging us that "human competence be recognized through our quest (as distance educators) for the recognition and encouragement of self-direction and autonomy in distance students" (p. 250). *Contemporary Issues in American Distance Education* also includes chapters in support of the learner, including a call to create learning communities and to stimulate new ways of examining interaction between student and content.

The use of distance learning technologies can also build enrollment by serving new groups of students and can increase student retention through flexible, convenient scheduling. Students can also learn new technology-oriented skills and knowledge to help them compete in the workplace. However, the use of distance education as an instructional approach must be examined in the context of the many studies which have been concerning the efficacy of the technology on factors such as student attitudes, demographic predictors, learning style, GPA, and other success factors (Bink et al., 1995; Biner, Dean, & Mellinger, 1994; Cookson, 1989; Fitts, & Posner, 1967; Verduin & Clark, 1991).

Faculty using the technology can explore new modes of teaching and learning, and reach the "new majority" or so called non-traditional student. Faculty expertise can be shared with greater numbers of students, in contrast to using part-time or adjunct faculty. Full-time faculty are more invested in the philosophy and mission of the academic program and the university. From the perspective of the distance location, using main campus faculty is a real plus.

One of the major limitations of distance learning is that is does not save money, and universities must consider the cost, not only of the technology itself, but of course development and faculty release time to properly adapt course materials (Cyrs & Smith, 1990; Moller & Draper, 1996). While there many be cost savings to the student and to the faculty, who might otherwise have to travel to a traditional class, the other costs will be greater. Limitations associated with the appropriateness of distance

learning for certain courses or types of academic disciplines are beyond the scope of this paper. However our experience at Temple suggests that some courses are more successful than others and will be addressed later.

Lack of high level administrative support, faculty training, or adequate student support services are all major barriers to success (Cyrs & Smith, 1990). Finally, our experience at Temple shows that several consecutive hours of class (i.e., three or more) , particularly at the end of a work day, results in high participant fatigue, even with breaks and arrangement of course content in short segments. However, for most of our students, access to the academic program outweighs the negative considerations, but is an issue we continue to address.

THE TEMPLE UNIVERSITY EXPERIENCE

The Temple experience using compressed video for delivering distance learning programs is one of evolution from a focus on the technology itself, to a focus on its main role of providing educational access, to now looking at the next challenge of evaluating success. The following section will examine this evolution and focus on program development, coordination and planning, and plans for ongoing evaluation.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

When I entered the Temple scene in January, 1993, I found that a distance learning doctoral pharmacy program was just beginning, between the Health Sciences Center and Harrisburg, headed by a pioneer spirit from that department. The technology was in place absent any known plan for extended implementation beyond that department. However, there was strong interest and commitment by the vice president for Computer and Information Services and other leaders to enhance the use of technology within the University. Thus, my initial contacts, from the perspective of the distance location, were with the technology experts.

Recognizing the tremendous potential to expand graduate education opportunities in Central Pennsylvania, particularly for programs not otherwise available in the region, I initiated discussions with the academic department heads and deans about additional use of the technology for other academic programs. This was a long term process, with some very interested, some interested but skeptical, and others discounting the potential entirely. One strong motivating factor was the potential to increase enrollments, and thus revenue, at a time when public policy makers are increasingly critical of higher education. Another motivating factor was the possibility for faculty to develop competencies to stay current in their fields.

From the single academic program, we grew the next year to include a course in the graduate social work program. It was an experiment that taught us a great lesson about scheduling; that is, not to conduct a distance learning curse is being offered in another section with a "live" professor. The tradeoff in this situation was another pioneer spirit who was willing to teach using the technology, but it turned out to be an inappropriate course. The students in Harrisburg felt like "educational have-nots", and those in Philadelphia resented "sharing" their professor. Of course, we now identify all distance learning and on-line courses in the University's schedule.

Our program development efforts simultaneously turned to several other academic departments, particularly journalism and business, the latter of which was considering our request for their program based on potential student demand. While program development discussions were taking place, the University was also installing additional compressed video equipment on the main campus, and subsequently on the suburban campus once the decision to implement the business program was finalized. The need to expand the technology was based, not on student assessment for distance education per se, but on student need for the program in the area. I saw technology as a means to an end, not an end in itself.

Thus, by Fall, 1995 we had expanded the use of the technology to both journalism and business, the latter of which was a totally new program, and which was initiated with the goal of being primarily technology-based in its delivery. This is in contrast to the other programs, which already existed in

Harrisburg; the technology was seen as way to offer more courses, to expose students to main campus faculty who could not travel to Harrisburg, or to offer electives students would not otherwise have available.

Currently, Temple Harrisburg offers evening courses for the working adult student. Since the 1996-97 academic year we have been offering technological-delivered courses every evening. We have also offered one-to-three on-line courses per semester for the business students. The development of on-line courses has been rapid and is doubling each semester. To support all of these efforts, the Provost appointed a committee to explore implementation issues, and a number of faculty have received course development grants to do the appropriate course revisions needed for successful implementation.

COORDINATION AND PLANNING

Coordination and planning from the perspective of the distance location occurs at three levels. The first is with the telecommunications department on main campus to have the equipment turned on, technical support available, and scheduling. A technician is always available at the originating site and the students in Harrisburg have the telephone number for that classroom if needed. Lectures can be taped as backup in the event of equipment failure.

The second is with the academic departments to ensure that courses using the equipment are not double scheduled and to determine what courses are needed or will be offered, based on student and academic needs. We coordinate with faculty how we can best support them in duplicating and distributing handouts and exams and what we have found works to provide student support and services. For example, we duplicate handouts FAXed to us and will return exams to professors by overnight mail. We encourage all faculty to teach from Harrisburg two or three times during the semester, which has been highly appreciated by students. One faculty even schedules dinner with the Harrisburg students.

The third, and probably most important, occurs with and for the students. Students at all locations need to know that the course will be delivered by videoconference or In-line, and the printed schedule for the Harrisburg, as well as the main campus has a specific section number for every course indicating that it is technology based. The first night of class a Harrisburg staff member meets with the students to explain how the equipment works, what to do if there is a technical problem, how to adjust the microphone, and generally answer their questions and calm their anxieties about something new and strange. One strategy we have found effective in explaining the technology to prospective students is to invite current students to academic receptions. When we did that for the business program, all the currently enrolled students came to discuss their experience in the program. Our business students, in particular, have developed study groups. Students also have the professor's E-mail address and can obtain University E-mail accounts of their own. We provide the software free of charge. We think it is important for students to receive excellent service at the Harrisburg campus, a philosophy which extends to distance learning students particularly.

EVALUATION

It is not sufficient to provide increased access to higher education opportunities; a university must ensure that using distance learning technologies contributes to student success. Measuring that success is an ongoing challenge. Given our short history in providing technology-based education, we are also just beginning to address student success.

Two indicators we have now are faculty perception of student achievement and the results of various surveys. Faculty report that, in general, students in Harrisburg are highly motivated and high achieving compared to those in Philadelphia. Given that we have taught four courses in the business program, we have more experience than with the other programs. Business faculty report that student achievement equalled or exceeded that of students in Philadelphia. We have not done a statistical analysis of point averages at this point, however, the ones we have examined appear to show no real difference in student outcomes. As this is fairly well established in the literature, we are not sure is this is where we want to focus future evaluative efforts. The relative success of these graduate

students is supported by Bink, et. al., 1995, who concluded that students with greater college experience perform at higher levels in technology-based courses than would college freshmen, for example. As the University develops more on-line courses for undergraduate students, we will have to examine this population for possible differences in learning outcomes.

Our first small survey of students in the business program (as well as informal verbal feedback) showed that they accept distance learning and are likely to apply to the MBA program. We have a perception, as yet unsubstantiated by research, that the business students are less resistant to technology, compared to social work students, for example. The scheduling of the course (time of day) was more important to them, indicating that from a program development standpoint, we must schedule based on the students' needs and not on an existing academic schedule, which may not account for regional differences. One result for the Harrisburg campus, is that we are investigating installing a second distance learning classroom to better accommodate the students' needs for scheduling. We also conducted a more comprehensive survey of the students in Spring, 1997 at both the originating and distance sties to determine their reaction to the use of technology. Generally, the students in Harrisburg were more accepting of the technology than were those at the originating site. We concluded that the access issue countered many of the other issues that might effect acceptance. Students noted some of the technical glitches, such as sound quality, were obstacles. The students at the originating site did not like it when the professor traveled to the distance site to teach from there. Generally, students at the originating site would prefer not to be part of a distance learning class. We are continuing to examine the student service issues related to these findings.

The University as a whole is also evaluating the implementation of information technology through its Teaching, Learning, and Technology roundtable. Through the use of 16 case studies from various schools and colleges, the Temple has collected information to understand the information technology culture and how it developed. The insights gained are being used to develop recommendations for future information technology investments at Temple from a systemic viewpoint.

CONCLUSION

Successfully implementing distance learning is an enormous and challenging academic undertaking. Cyrs and Smith (1990) note that complex decisions must be made concerning policy, administration, instruction, technology, and evaluation for it to be successful. The professional and academic staff at the distance location can play a critical part in program development, coordination and planning, and evaluation of the distance learning enterprise, as well as provide critical student support. We are in a unique position to see how the whole is effected by the many parts which make up a successful distance learning experience.

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Refereed Papers

THE LINGUISTICS OF ANDRAGOGY AND ITS OFFSPRING

Trenton R. Ferro

ABSTRACT

The use and meaning of the term, *andragogy*, has spawned not only a considerable quantity of discussion, called the "Andragogy Debate"; it has also fostered the creation of additional terms intended to define either the broad field of adult education itself or some designated portion of that larger arena. This paper, and the accompanying presentation, examines many of these terms and points out their etymological and, in some cases, semantic, deficiencies. The presentation closes with a plea for adult educators to concentrate on what they know best, the planning and delivery of learning opportunities for adults of all ages and in a variety of settings, and to resist the temptation to become linguistic innovators, a task at which very few adult educators are competent and for which even fewer are trained.

INTRODUCTION

The "Andragogy Debate" has experienced a long, sometimes glorious, sometimes laborious, and certainly well-documented life span (see, for example, Pratt, 1993; Davenport, 1987; Davenport & Davenport, 1985). This debate has included discussion and disagreement about the definition, content, strength, and applicability of andragogy as a theory of adult learning. It has also spawned a number of ancillary discussions on a number of related topics.

Although andragogy has neither established itself universally among educators as a viable theory of learning for adults nor, as a term, entered the common American parlance, adult education theorists and practitioners alike still have created a variety of other terms, apparently inspired by and based on the word *andragogy*, to define the entire field of adult education or some portion of that larger arena. Courtenay and Stevenson (1983) have labelled this phenomenon "the threat of gogymania" (p. 10).

THE PROBLEM AND CONCERN

Lost in this morass (the word used by Davenport, 1987), however, has been careful and appropriate attention to the actual terms which have been used and proposed–their linguistic form and construction (morphology), their meaning (semantics), and their use and application within the context of human discourse in general and adult education in particular. Most of the proposed terms are linguistically bankrupt and semantic foolishness; they are, in fact, nonsense words.

ANALYSES

The majority of this study involves the examination and analysis of 1) the linguistics (morphology and semantics) of terms proposed to describe the field, or portions of the field, of adult education and 2) the suggested use for such terms, considering both the theoretical foundations, if any, undergirding these words and their recommended uses. This discussion flows naturally, then, into implications for practitioners, from professional to voluntary, of adult education and its various categories and applications.

LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

The linguistic examination of the terms falls into three categories: 1) the improper form and use of the common suffix, *-gogy*; 2) the use of incomplete and incompatible stems; and 3) concerns related to definitions of these terms. This analysis is based on the use and meaning of the ancestors of these morphemes and words in the original Greek (using Liddell & Scott, 1940, as the primary authority). Latin

(using Lewis & Short, 1879, as the primary authority), or other language family sources and the general and accepted rules for the formation of words in the English language, American version.

The suffix, *-gogy*

The common suffix is discussed first because this is the place at which most suggested terms founder from the start; they make use of what is actually a non-existent suffix, *-gogy*. Fortunately, Knowles (1980) avoided this pitfall by seeking the advice of the publishers of the Merriam-Webster dictionaries about the possibility of using the spelling, *androgogy*, rather than that to which we have become accustomed, *andragogy* (see Appendix A, pp. 252-254).[1] Crawford (as cited in Knowles, 1980) provides the following summary:

> The elements to be joined are the stem *andr-* of the Greek word *aner* "man", [sic] and the Greek word *agogos* "leader". [sic] The first element of a Greek compound is regularly the stem (not the nominative or dictionary form). There is no *o* in the stem of the word for "man"; the form *andr-os* is the genitive case, "man's", [sic] the *o* belonging to the case ending. If, however, the stem of the first element ends in a consonant and the second element begins with a consonant, an *o* is commonly inserted to facilitate pronunciation. . . . But where the second element of a compound begins with a vowel, not only is no connecting *o* needed after a consonant, but stems ending in *o* or other vowels drop that vowel (e.g. *mon-archy*, *phil-ately*). What does not happen in any circumstances is dropping the initial vowel of a second element. We do not say *mono-rchy* or *philo-tely*; much less should we say *andr-o-gogy*. (p. 254)

This means that the suffix *-gogy* has no meaning; the morpheme must be *-agogy*. Had those who would invent or coin new words, usually inspired by the term *andragogy*, given heed to this readily accessible piece of information and advice, the world of adult education might have been spared some of the malformations that have been suggested and which are discussed next.

The suggested stems

Three suggested terms--*gerogogy*, *synergogy*, and *anthrogogy*--share two problems in common: 1) The suffix, as discussed above, is incorrect and has no meaning. 2) The suggested stems are truncated and, consequently, also fail to convey meaning. The root for *gerogogy*, a term suggested by Battersby (1982), Lebel (1978), and Pearson and Wessman (1996), should be *geront-*, as in *gerontology*. The correct form of the word would be *gerontagogy*. Now the English word *geriatics* lends some support to the use of *ger-* as a root. However, as Klein (1966) notes, *geriatrics* was formed improperly; it was "coined by I. L. Nascher (1863-1944) in 1914 [from the] Greek *geron*, 'an old man', [sic] and *iatria*, 'a healing'. [sic] . . . The correct form would have been *gerontiatrics*" (p. 652).

Mouton and Blake (1984) propose *synergogy* as the term that would best describe their concept of a "systematic approach to learning in which the members of small teams learn from one another through structured interactions" (p. xii). They also provide the etymology of the term. "*Synergogy* is derived from two Greek words: *synergos* ('working together') and *agogus* ('leader of'), which has come to mean 'teacher.' *Synergogy* thus refers to 'working together for shared teaching" (pp. xi-xii). Their analysis is basically correct,[2] but the result should be a different form, as they acknowledge in a footnote: "*Synergagogy* is technically correct, according to conventions of creating words from Greek roots, but needlessly difficult. *Synergogy* is an acceptable alternative" (p. xii). Yes, *synergagogy* is the correct term; whether it is needlessly difficult is open to debate. However, baldly stating that *synergogy* is an acceptable alternative without any supporting evidence is unacceptable; saying that it's so doesn't make it so.

Trott (1991) responds to the question, "Is there a generic set of principles that guide lifelong learning?" by creating "the word 'anthrogogy' to name the way out of my confusion, [sic] and provide me with a means of understanding my ideals and readdressing my goals as a teacher" (p. 4). Again, there is a problem with the stem. The Greek word behind this formation is apparently *anthropos*; consequently, the stem should be *anthrop-*, and the coined word, *anthropagogy*. Trott was aware of this possibility; he notes Benne's use of *anthropogogy* [sic] as "a rallying call to the education professoriate to address

education's mission" (as cited in Trott, 1991, p. 5). Trott should have kept that word, even with the problematic suffix, rather than truncate the stem.

The terms *humanagogy* and *eldergogy* present a different problem. These are examples of a stem from one language being wedded to a suffix from another language; this is not a standard process in English word formation. Knudson (1979, 1980) suggests *humanagogy* as "a theory of learning that takes into account the differences between people of various ages as well as their similarities. It is a *human* theory of learning" (Knudson, 1979, p. 261). However, *human* is an English word derived from the Latin *humanus*; *-agogy* is a Greek suffix. Similarly, *eldergogy*, proposed by Yeo (1982) to serve a purpose similar to Lebel's (1978) *gerogogy*, uses a stem of Germanic origin that has come to us via Old and Middle English. Of course, the suffix is also problematic.

Definitions

Since *-gogy* is improperly formed, it is a suffix without meaning. However, the morpheme *-agogy*, as used in *andragogy* and its progeny, has been adopted from the word *pedagogy*. *Pedagogy* means, literally, "leading a boy." A *pedagogue* (the Greek word is *paidagogos*) was the slave who went with a boy from home to school and back again. He was charged with the responsibility of the boy's safe journey as well as that of guarding against potential truancy. He might also guide the boy's study at home. Over time (even in Greek literature) *pedagogy* took on, then, the meaning of "training, guiding, educating, moderating," and a *pedagogue* became the person who did these things. It is this later use that has led to the current definition of *pedagogy* as "the art or profession of teaching" (American Heritage, p. 914). The concept of "teaching children" no longer seems to inhere to, or restrict, the term *pedagogy*.

These observations lead to definitional concerns about the attempts to coin new words. *Andragogy* gains meaning only when compared to *pedagogy*. However, *andragogy*, strictly speaking, becomes a subset of *pedagogy*, if the definition cited above is accurate, rather than a contrasting term. *Anthrogogy* and *humanagogy*, if these were viable terms, would carry definitions synonymous with the definition *pedagogy* now carries. The coining of such terms becomes meaningful only if the second meaning of *pedagogy* is used: "preparatory training or instruction" (American Heritage, p. 914). However, as argued below, there does not appear to be sufficient need for additional words if there is not something substantial for those words to describe.

THEORETICAL/SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

As Courtenay and Stevenson (1983) suggest, the need for such an array of terms is highly doubtful. The Andragogy Debate raises serious questions about the actual existence of a theory of adult learning. Many see the descriptions advanced by Knowles (1980) under the heading, *andragogy*, as a useful set of assumptions that serve the educators of adults well in practice; however, they do not view andragogy as an actual theory. Much less do such terms as *gerogogy*, *eldergogy*, and *synergogy* define a theory. Rather, they highlight more limited spheres of practice that, in fact, draw upon many of the same principles that the educators of adults use in other settings with other populations. Furthermore, the term *educational gerontology* (which, by the way, is properly formed) already exists to distinguish the special features and aspects involved in working with older adults.

Humanagogy and *anthrogogy* have been proposed as ways to get out of the supposed andragogy/pedagogy dichotomy. Again, however, there is no new theoretical base requiring the use of such terms. Furthermore, educators of adults are already faced with a plethora of choices to describe what may be unique about working with adults in their particular setting; among them are *lifelong learning* or *education*, *continuing education*, *nontraditional education*, *community education*, *recurrent education*, and *nonformal* and *informal education*—as well as the term, *adult education*. One is certainly hard pressed to come up with good reasons for adding to this list.

PRACTITIONER CONCERNS

Qoheleth said, "Of making many books there is no end" (Ecclesiastes 12:12, NRSV). Apparently the same is true of the inventing of terms for the field of adult education, or portions of it, even though there

is no need for such terms. The major purposes of this investigation are to warn against 1) the seductive temptation to coin and use "cute" or "catchy" terms for either the entire adult education enterprise or its various segments and 2) the application of these terms in ways that imply a theoretical base or foundation for practice–or the actual practice itself–when there is a lack of any clear evidence to support that area of practice as unique from other aspects either of adult education or of education in general. When we, as educators of adults, fall prey to the enticement to use words which, in themselves, are patently linguistic nonsense and which, furthermore, are based on insufficient, shaky, and inadequate theoretical underpinnings, we present ourselves as fools who possess neither linguistic astuteness nor a sound basis for our practice. We communicate to other professionals and practitioners, with whom we must interact as we apply and practice our expertise, that we are not serious about, prepared for, or competent in what we do.

NOTES

[1]Knowles confuses nominative (dictionary) forms with the roots, which are based, as Crawford (as cited in Knowles, 1980) explains in his letter, on the genitive (possessive) form. (a) Knowles states that the Greek word for "child" is *paid*. (This statement has led others, e.g., Davenport, 1987, to make the same mistake.) However, the nominative form is *pais*; the root, which is used for the formation of compound words, is *paid-*. (b) Further, Knowles states that the Greek word for "man" is *andros*. As Crawford explains, the nominative form is *aner*; the root is *andr-*.

[2]Mouton and Blake (1984) have made a couple of mistakes. First the dictionary form of the second term is *agogos*, not *agogus* (it is a Greek, not a Latin, word). Secondly, the word means, simply, "leader." "Leader of" implies the use of the genitive (possessive) form, *agogou*. Knowles (1980), by the way, uses both spellings (the second being incorrect) in his letter to Merriam-Webster.

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FACILITATING PERSPECTIVE TRANSFORMATION IN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A TOOL FOR EDUCATORS

Kathleen P. King

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research was the development and application of a self-reporting assessment instrument that could be used in adult education to determine which learning activities contribute to perspective transformation. Such an assessment tool could have profound implications for adult education practice. The process of developing this instrument entailed a complementary combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. The product is a 3-page instrument that uses checklists, objective and free-response items to examine specific aspects of adult learners' perspective transformations. The results of using this tool could immediately impact continuing and higher education classrooms, curriculum and planning, and more broadly the adult education field. Suggested areas of future research are also indicated.

INTRODUCTION

"While participating in class discussions, the way I feel about certain beliefs were questioned or challenged... this is by no means negative; it has opened my eyes to different opinions about the same ideas.... I see things differently and act differently." This is just one example of how adult learners frequently grow and change as a result of their education experience. As they learn they may also experience changes in their understanding and their lives. Such change has been one of the goals of humanistic education. One specific change is in an adult learner's "perspective meaning" (Mezirow, 1991), or "frame of reference" (Mezirow, 1997), the way they look at and interpret concepts, events and people. This is called a "perspective transformation" by educators and researchers in the field of adult education (Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1978; 1991); this is the critical experience in transformational learning.

Transformational learning theory raises questions for the adult educator about perspective transformation and the classroom. This paper will focus on the questions regarding the experience itself and its educational applications. The questions regarding the perspective transformation experience include: How frequently is transformational learning happening in the adult education setting? and If adult learners are experiencing such change as a result of their education, what is contributing to it? Two questions about the educational application of this experience will also be addressed: How may adult educators determine if their teaching is resulting in perspective transformation? And, what may adult educators do in the classroom to facilitate such change? The purpose of this study was to answer these questions through the development and application of an assessment tool, the "Learning Activities Survey."

Until this time there had not been a tool that adult educators could use to assess the occurrence of and contributors to perspective transformation. The Learning Activities Survey assessment tool is based on Mezirow's ten stages of transformational learning (Mezirow, 1991). This tool focuses on identifying whether perspective transformation has been experienced within the context of higher education, and identifying the learning activities that contribute to it. Ultimately this research may be replicated in other

adult education settings to determine similarities, differences and additional insights into the perspective transformation (King, in press).

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

The theoretical basis of the development of the assessment tool are described elsewhere (King, 1996; 1997). Therefore, the pilot study, research methods and findings will be focused on here instead.

PILOT STUDY

The pilot study was conducted in the summer and early fall of 1996. It included ten pilot surveys (N = 155) from three colleges, three preliminary interviews, seven follow-up interviews from the pilot surveys, and a panel review of the proposed instrument (King, 1997). The interviews and survey pilots were alternated to provide formative development and evaluation of the tool. This method proved important in the crafting of the final instrument. In addition, supplementing the quantitative instrument with structured interviews improved the internal validity of the instrument.

The preliminary interviews and pilot studies provided direct input on topics and terms that make the final instrument (1) more easily understood by the participants, and (2) effective in gaining answers to the research questions that have been posed. In addition, the findings suggested that a number of follow-up interviews should be conducted whenever the instrument is used. The interviews enabled the gathering of more in-depth information on the perspective transformation experience; such information is essential in the final interpretation and analysis of the gathered data.

At this point, the instrument was submitted to a panel of five educators and researchers who are experts in the field of transformational learning. Most of the panel members emphasized the continued need for follow-up interview information. This was consistent with the methods of instrument development and future use. Several panel members offered specific suggestions for items in the instrument such as more concise and clearer wording, a more user-friendly format, additional response choices for specific questions and the elimination of several demographic questions. The resulting assessment tool is available from the author; a manual for using, scoring and analyzing the Learning Activities Survey is beyond the scope of this paper and is available elsewhere (King, in press).

The final Learning Activities Survey has four parts: the first part identifies the stages of experience in a perspective transformation and asks the participant for a brief description of their experience; next, learning experiences that may promote a perspective transformation are identified; the following series of questions determine which of the learning activities all participants in the study (not just those who have experienced a perspective transformation) have participated in; and the final section of the instrument collects information on demographic characteristics that are suggested in the literature. The follow-up interviews include a critical incident format to gather more in-depth information about perspective transformation and the learning activities (King, 1997; in press).

VALIDATION AND RELIABILITY

Validation of the instrument was accomplished by several procedures. An array of methods of evaluation were used to assure that the instrument was truly collecting data about participants' experiences of perspective transformation in education. The instrument was validated by the pilot study process of using critical incidents and other short answer formats, by successive interviews and samples, by the formative adaptation of the instrument, and by the panel of expert's critique and suggestions. As the information about perspective transformation was gathered by several means, it verified that the perspective transformation experience was both accurately reported by the participant and understood by the researcher. Information gathered through these several means contributed to the format and content of an instrument that was then piloted in its final format.

A simple test-retest format for reliability was not appropriate because of the nature of perspective transformation. Instead, the reliability question was approached from a hermeneutical perspective (Gall, Borg, and Gall; 1996); that is, several individual assessments were used to arrive at a final evaluation. A unique feature of this instrument, the "PT-Index," was key in this approach; using this categorical scale, it was established whether or not an adult learner had a perspective transformation after reviewing his or her responses to several items in the instrument. In this way, each item was evaluated separately in arriving at the composite PT-Index; this procedure strengthened the reliability of the Learning Activities Survey.

RESEARCH METHOD

Next, the research method is described in terms of the final sample and data assessment. The sampling process, characteristics of the sample, and the procedures for data scoring and analysis are presented.

THE FINAL SAMPLE

The final research was conducted in the fall of 1996. The university colleges and continuing education divisions of four private colleges in the greater Philadelphia metropolitan area participated in the study. Over 700 surveys were distributed, and a total of 471 were returned. Four hundred- twenty-two of these responses were useable based on the adult status of the respondent (none were included from anyone under 21 years of age), continuing student status (the respondent was in at least his or her second semester of study), and completion of the assessment tool. The above parameters were determined based on the design of the study.

The sample of 422 participants was characterized by eight demographic factors: age, marital status, sex, race, college of enrollment, semester, college major, and prior education level. Nearly one-quarter of the respondents, 24.5 %, were between 21-24 years old, 20% were 25-29, 33.7 % were 30-39 and 21.8% were over 40. Regarding marital status, 48.8% of the respondents were single, 42.9% married, 7.8% divorced or separated and .5% (2) widowed. Male participants numbered 31.3% and female, 68.7%. Racial identification was largely white at 90.2%, followed by African-American at 4.8% and all others at 5.0%.

The numerical distribution of participants may be viewed as being in thirds: one-third, Colleges A and C combined, College B another third, and College D the final third. The mean of the distribution of semesters of enrollment was 6.836, (M = 6.836), and the standard deviation, 3.94 (SD = 3.94). Most of the students were within their first eight semesters of study; indeed, fully 73% of the respondents were within this range.

A most common profile of the students who participated is a white, single female in her 30's and in her sixth semester of undergraduate studies. This profile places restrictions on the generalizability of the study and using different populations is a recommendation for future study.

SCORING AND ANALYSIS

After the survey was administered, the collected data were used to determine which activities promote transformational learning. The data were coded and categorized according to the activity, or activities, of influence. Finally, these data were analyzed to determine individual effects and any correlations.

Among the initial sorting of the data was the determination of the age of the participant (over 21 years of age) and whether they were in at least their second semester of study. A "PT-Index," perspective transformation index, was also used. The PT-Index, as developed by the author, is a single score that is derived from Items 1, 2, 3, and 5 of the instrument. The PT-Index indicates whether or not students have experienced a perspective transformation in regard to their educational experience. If the participant has indicated a perspective transformation during his or her education, he or she is given a

score of "3." If the student has indicated a perspective transformation in any form, he or she scores a "2." Finally if the student has not identified with the perspective transformation experience, his or her score is "1." For most of the analyses PT-Indices "1" and "3" are used because PT-Index "2" is too small a group (1 - 5%) to be considered statistically.

The percentage of individuals experiencing a perspective transformation within their education may be determined at this time. These data are also analyzed for individual effects and correlations among demographic characteristics. Finally, using data from Item 4 in the instrument, the individual learning activities are examined. Proportions in which learning activities are selected by those having had a perspective transformation (PT-Index, "3") provide a ranking of their contribution to the experience. As a final check, these data should also be examined as to whether adult learners had the opportunity of participating in specific learning activities. Item 7 in the instrument addresses this question.

Follow-up interviews were conducted with a stratified random sample by gender and school of those participants who indicate their willingness to be interviewed by completing the interview sign-up form. Efforts were made to evenly distribute the selection among men and women, and school affiliations. These interviews were necessary to provide further insight into the survey responses and the activities that are identified as facilitating transformational learning. The accounts of perspective transformations afforded by the interviews provide a check against those obtained in the survey; the conclusions being drawn about the survey data may also be verified by interviews.

FINDINGS

The findings may be aligned with the initial questions posed about the perspective transformation experience and its educational applications. Data regarding the percentage of adult learners experiencing perspective transformation, the contributing learning activities, the use of the Learning Activities Survey in the classroom, and the ways in which adult educators may facilitate perspective transformation are presented.

EXPERIENCE

This research demonstrated that among the 422 responses, 37.3% of the adult learners experienced a perspective transformation within the context of their education. In addition, critical thinking skills activities, discussions, and the role of the teacher as a facilitator were indicated more than 25% of the time as contributing to a perspective transformation.

Critical thinking skills activities predominated the list of contributors to perspective transformation: personal reflection was cited 36.5% of the time, and assigned readings, 25.0%. Challenge of the teacher was next in rank at 31.4% of the responses; as indicated from the data and follow-up interviews this meant that the teacher had challenged the learner in academic pursuits. Class discussions were the next in the ranking at 25.0% citations. The remaining learning activities ranked from 21.9% to 2.0% (King, 1997); these learning activities included class exercises, papers, class/group projects, deep thought, writing about concerns, self-evaluation, nontraditional structure of a class, personal journals, cooperative experiences or internships, other assignments, lab experiences and prior learning assessments. These findings not only support the literature (Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1997), but also provide a framework from which to pose questions for classroom application.

EDUCATIONAL APPLICATION

With the introduction of the Learning Activities Survey, educators have a tool to help them determine whether their teaching is contributing to transformational learning among adult learners, and if so, what specific activities contribute to such learning. With the assistance of the "PT-index," the learning activities checklist, and follow-up interviews, the results will clearly delineate how many of the students have experienced a perspective transformation, and what learning activities facilitated it. As a result of such research, adult educators have several options. A few of these options include, incorporating

more activities that facilitate perspective transformation, encouraging reflection on the experience, integrating transformational learning into their objectives and goals, researching new teaching methods, and pursuing additional knowledge about transformational learning theory.

Based on these initial findings, adult educators would do well to become proficient in using a variety of teaching methods that develop and employ critical thinking skills among their adult learners. By altering choices in Items 4 and 7 of the assessment tool the educator could incorporate evaluation of additional critical thinking activities such as case studies, nominal group activities or critical incidents. As he or she used these teaching methods in the classroom the learners could be asked to describe "how" these learning activities contributed to their transformational learning in that specific setting. The information gathered from using the Learning Activities Survey affords an opportunity for more substantial queries through free response questions and interviews. In such a way, the adult educator may conduct action research and improve his or her practice.

IMPLICATIONS

The scope of the instrument is, however, much broader than any individual classroom, because of two major points: 1) the instrument, as it stands, focuses on "any" perspective transformation within the adult educational experience, and 2) findings confirm that adults do not always immediately recognize a perspective transformation (King, 1997). Within this context, adult learners frequently reference experiences in a previous course or semester. This even affords reflection of an interdisciplinary nature and may indicate implications for curriculum and programs. The results of any such study need to be interpreted as proceeding from this greater expanse of experience unless indicated otherwise.

On this broader plane, specific course or curriculum objectives may also be cast in the form of perspective transformations and the instrument used to see whether the curriculum effects such results. For example, "Does course number 101 result in the student having a more analytical perception of professional journal articles?" and "What learning activities should we encourage teachers of the course to use because they facilitate this change?" The Learning Activities Survey may be administered with appropriate verbal or written instructions to answer these questions. Detailed directives for making such modifications are provided elsewhere (King, in press). Courses may be adapted to incorporate the findings and then data gathered again to test its effectiveness.

Findings in this research (King, 1997) thus far indicate that such objectives and evaluations will be best examined over the span of several courses; time is an important element in identifying perspective transformation. This has implications for educational planning. With information gathered from their own students, educators may develop curriculum that will empower students with critical thinking skills directed to their disciplines. In this way curriculum would be positively affected, but perhaps the consequences extend yet further to responsibility in planning (Cervero & Wilson, 1994).

In addition to the primary focus in this study, the Learning Activities Survey also gathers information about life changes and student support systems. This is because adult learners do not engage in an isolated educational experience: they come to the classroom with unique experiences; they examine new ideas from that context, and they need to return to and function in that context. Transformative learning is potentially life changing (Cranton, 1997). A question that remains unanswered is, How much responsibility does an educator, a department or an institution have in equipping the adult learner for such change? One may answer that the responsibility is fulfilled by the fact that the critical thinking skills learned and practiced in the classroom may be used for a lifetime of adaptation to new information, circumstances, and demands. Others may believe that greater responsibility needs to be shouldered by the educational program or institution. Whatever the stance, appropriate planning and action need to take place.

Further research is needed to adapt and employ this assessment tool in diverse adult education settings, such as adult ESL, literacy and noncredit continuing education classes, and among different

populations, such as urban vs. rural, white vs. minority, and USA vs. international. At this point the Learning Activities Survey has only been used in higher education. It is expected that although similar results will be found in other settings, the learning activities contributing to the perspective transformation experience may be different because of different practices in those settings. Based on the current findings, it is predicted that learning activities that employ critical thinking skills will be indicated. Determining which specific learning activities are most effective for these purposes and in which settings could change adult education practice among those interested in perspective transformation.

SUMMARY

The result of this study has been the development, and application of the Learning Activities Survey; this is an instrument that examines the contribution of specific classroom activities to the adult learner's experience of perspective transformation. The common format of the data gathered with this instrument might enable educators and researchers to carefully consolidate a broad base of findings for analysis and interpretation. The instrument may be applied to determine the role of perspective transformation in many different adult education situations, including: the use of critical thinking skills activities, the contribution of traditional and new learning activities; the effects of classroom, school-wide or program-wide curriculum; and the effects of programmatic formats. In such a manner, through additional research and application, the impact upon the practice of adult education could be very significant.

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THE INFLUENCE, POWER, AND IMPACT OF SUPPORT GROUPS FOR WOMEN WHO RETURN TO COLLEGE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to learn in what ways support groups or 12-step programs have influenced or contributed to an adult woman's education. Eight women who are presently enrolled in college and who were participants in one or more support groups were interviewed. These women found a sense of self-confidence that became an influence to further their education through college. This influence is attributed to the personal power gained through active participation and in working the twelve steps. Women who have taken risks and embraced a new way of life, after going through the recovery process, while continuing to actively participate in the support group were found to have benefited the most. Attitude changes towards education, family, community, and spirituality were experienced by each of the women. Spirituality, which is enhanced by support group or twelve step participation, has a profound impact on the individual in everyday life. A relationship was made between the recovery process and Maslow's hierarchy of human needs. It was also found that the women who share their experience by sponsoring or reaching out to help another, are the ones who learn the most from that experience.

INTRODUCTION

A recurring answer from some adults, when asked what made them decide to go to college, is that a change had come about through crises or a life change. They turned to a support group or a self-help group to cope with their issue and this brought about a clarity of purpose and acceptance. Through this discovery, the motivation to become better educated led them to seek out a college to complete this goal. The purpose of this study is to describe how women who are present or past participants of support groups are influenced to continue their education through enrollment in college.

BACKGROUND

Support groups and 12-step programs are vehicles for people experiencing a crisis that help them to develop healthy coping skills. The central theme of support groups is that "you are not alone" with your problem. There is no exact date for the inception of self-help groups, but some of the better known organizations were established in the mid-1930's: Alcoholics Anonymous in 1935 and Recovery, Inc., in 1937 (Alcoholics Anonymous World Services, 1952; Gartner & Riessman, 1984, Katz, 1993). The number and types of groups has grown substantially. A 1990 study by Katz and Bender located more than 500,000 such groups and the American Psychological Association (APA) recognizes self-help groups "as an intervention method that professionals concerned with a holistic approach can utilize."

There are support groups for people overcoming addictions (i.e. Alcoholics Anonymous, Narcotics Anonymous, Gamblers Anonymous, Overeaters Anonymous); people affected by family and friends who are addicted (i.e. Adult Children of Alcoholics, Al-Anon, Nar-Anon, Ala-Teen); hospital and non-hospital based programs for those who need to deal with crises issues that can develop from the loss of a loved one (i.e. Compassionate Friends, Grief Support, Bereaved Parents); those living with a life threatening illness (i.e. Cancer Survivors Groups, people living with HIV/AIDS); to groups addressing abuse (i.e. Parents Anonymous, Incest Survivors, PAAR--Pittsburgh Action Against Rape).

Support Groups offer its participants an anonymous atmosphere where they can perceive support in a caring community through shared information, experience and solutions. This study examines the healing process of the support group as a mechanism that enables participants to overcome their problem(s), and to move forward while developing personal fortitude and the confidence needed for (re)building self-esteem and self-actualization. For women in particular, the sense of belonging and the social acceptance, which are by-products of support groups, membership seems to enhance personal growth and development. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule (1986) state that, "for women, confirmation and community are prerequisites rather than consequences of development."

Change through spiritual conversion and social responsibility is the foundation of a 12-step program, while the development of coping skills to survive a problem or issue, is the foundation of non-12-programs. Both groups, however, utilize the process of meeting with people who have similar problems. For most members of a support group, the personal growth, healing, and sense of belonging seems to come through everyone supporting each other during the recovery process. "The 'Helper' Theory Principle" (Riessman, 1965) defines this transition finding that "those who help others are helped the most."

METHODOLOGY

SETTING OF THE STUDY. A private liberal arts, woman-focused, Catholic college located in the Oakland section of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, founded by the Sisters of Mercy, in 1929. The college student population of more than 2,500 encompasses a traditional day college program, a weekend college program (WEC), the Accelerated Program (CAP), Hill College, three off-campus sites, and Community Education (New Choices & New Options). The three off-campus sites are part of the Continuing Education Program—offering WEC and CAP formats.

To gather the sample, a cover letter explaining the research topic and requesting volunteers to fill out an attached consent to contact form was used. These were distributed in classes by instructors. The professors or instructors were asked to pass the forms to the female students in their class. Before passing out the forms, the instructor requested that only those female students who had not previously completed a form in another class to take one; this would avoid duplication.

Confidentiality was insured by assigning a coded number on the consent to contact sheet. All names, phone numbers, etc. were kept confidential and known only to the interviewers. For this descriptive, qualitative study, only the results of the data collected are relevant; to keep the data from becoming confused in the findings, a fictitious name was used.

STUDY SAMPLE. Eight women were chosen to be participants in the research project. From these eight women four (Angela, Faye, Betty, and Erin) are registered as Day students; two (Gloria and Cassie) are registered as Hill College students; one (Debbie) is registered as a CAP student; and one (Helen) is registered as a WEC student: each program within the college was represented. To keep their identities confidential, all were given the above pseudonyms. The demographics and profiles of the women are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

INTERVIEWS. As the participants were contacted and meeting times were set, arrangements were made to secure the use of a lounge located near the student union. This is a small, intimate meeting room, which could be locked to insure privacy throughout the interview. Each interview lasted approximately one hour, giving the researchers an estimated eight hours of taped interviews containing data. Interviews were conducted individually; the researchers interviewed four participants apiece—asking each the same questions. The pages of transcribed interviews were photocopied so that each researcher had a copy. The researchers spent hours reading over, picking through, and coding the answers of each interview. A combination of 29 codes or themes were found by the researchers.

DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPANTS

NAME	MARITAL STATUS	RELIGION	ENTERED THIS COLLEGE AS	EMPLOYMENT STATUS	NUMBER OF CHILDREN	ETHNIC AFFILIATION
Cassie	Divorced	Presbyterian	Freshman	Self-employed	2	African-American
Helen	Married	Christian	Freshman	Full-time	2	African-American
Debbie	Married	Catholic	Sophomore	Full-time	2	Anglo-Saxon
Gloria	Single	Baptist	Sophomore	Part-time	1	African-American
Angela	Divorced	Protestant	Junior	Part-time	2	Anglo-Saxon
Betty	Divorced	Catholic	Freshman	Part-time	2	Anglo-Saxon
Faye	Married	Catholic	Junior	Unemployed	2	Anglo-Saxon
Erin	Divorced	Catholic	Junior	Self-employed	0	Anglo-Saxon

Figure 1

PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS

NAME	DATE OF INTERVIEW	SUPPORT GROUP	AGE	TIME IN SUPPORT GROUP	CURRENT PARTICIPANT?
Cassie	4/27/97	Depression	41	2-3 years	Yes
Helen	7/6/97	Overeaters Anonymous & Narcotics Anonymous	40	17 years	Yes
Debbie	5/7/97	Overeaters Anonymous	39	10-11 years	Yes
Gloria	5/23/97	Narcotics Anonymous	33	8 years	Yes
Angela	5/1/97	Narcotics Anonymous	44	2 years	Yes
Betty	4/28/97	AlaTeen, OA & Adult Children of Alcoholics	37	2 years	No
Faye	5/8/97	Bereaved Parents	40	1 1/2 year	No
Erin	6/11/97	Alcoholics Anonymous & Narcotics Anonymous	37	14 years	yes

Figure 2

Presenting as much data as possible, through case studies and direct quotes, while using references and comparisons of that material to previously published studies, we used a method of triangulation. Not only have our participants given us personal evidence, but their reactions and actions are confirmed through certain pieces of information uncovered and published by professionals from a variety of fields: social, psychological and educational.

CASE STUDY

Cassie joined a support group to help combat her episodes with depression. She felt isolated, "I always thought why me, why me?" The program that she attended was a hospital sponsored program which met initially on a daily basis from 8:30 AM to 4:30 PM and was facilitated by a medical doctor and a therapist. After the initial intensive therapy, she continued to attend shorter weekly group sessions.

Cassie is 41 years of age, divorced, with a 13 year old son and a 19 year old daughter. Although she had excellent working skills and experience which enabled her to be employed in master's level positions, she suffered from low self-esteem. Before support group participation she said, "I was letting people tell me who I was, that was the hurting part–because when people didn't approve of me, I didn't feel good about myself."

GROWTH THROUGH TAKING RISKS. As a result of seeking and securing help for her dilemma, Cassie found that she could self-actualize, "Participating in a support group gave me a foundation to

begin living life itself. . .if it wasn't for the support group giving me that foundation–it was risk-taking, but it was comfortable risk-taking. It [provided] a secure environment to take risks." This statement is a result of her having the support group as a sounding board and a cushion once her depressive episode was stabilized through the medication and psycho-therapy. She was prepared to re-enter a normal life process. She used the energy of the support group to vent her confusion about decisions she was making that concerned everything from disciplining her children to her eventual choice of entering higher education.

SUPPORT GROUP INFLUENCE TOWARD RETURNING TO EDUCATION. Before participating in the support group Cassie experienced ambiguous feelings about school. Should she go? The opinions of her friends and family members were that she should in fact go to college. But she had so little confidence in herself and her ability, that making a decision one way or the other became an area of tremendous stress for her. Once she finally made the decision to enroll in school she commented, "I think God placed the support group there when I really needed something. I learned that I'm going to school for me." Her participation in the support group after her enrollment in school continued to help her remain focused.

INFLUENCE TOWARD FAMILY, COMMUNITY AND SPIRITUAL GROWTH. Her support group participation has helped develop some clarity in respect to appropriate interactions with her family and with her community. Prior to support group involvement she had been angry. But after participating in a support group she developed the confidence she needed to stop allowing people to define her actions and behaviors. Through this process she has gained a level of comfort with which to define herself and to live within the boundaries that she has identified; her growth continues to keep her life within certain limits.

She described her religious beliefs as having more meaning after support group involvement. She felt separated from God, even though, prior to the support group, she still went to church,. But through her healing process and participation in the support group she said, "My relationship with God became more of a relationship in the true sense, as opposed to being a religious person."

A RENEWED SENSE OF SELF. As a result of joining a support group, Cassie demonstrated some emotional stability and a renewed sense of self. She is achieving some of her goals in life and is simultaneously learning to survive the "stresses and struggles" of life. According to Mezirow and Associates (1990), "People reveal that they often enter adult education classes to repair, compensate for, or to fill in the gaps of the past.

MAJOR FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Out of 29 themes, six will be mentioned as most important. The first theme revealed that these women had found a sense of belonging through participation in support group or a 12-step program–a feeling that they were not alone. This seemed to give them the confidence that became an influence to further their education through college. This influence is attributed to the personal power gained through active participation and in working the steps. Overcoming or accepting a loss or recovering from an addiction is a powerful form of self-learning. The spirituality, self-esteem, and self-worth that is found in recovery may give the participant the confidence to enter and to earn a college degree while continuing to be successful one semester at a time. The second theme found that support and encouragement from the group is also very important for the woman who returns to school. This may be the first time that she finds cheerleaders on her side for something positive and she does not want to let the cheering section down.

The third theme that was found to be important is the spirituality, which is gained through participation in a support group or 12-step program, and the profound impact that it has on the individual in everyday life. This is connected to the serenity that is gained from working The 12-Steps of Alcoholics Anonymous, Narcotics Anonymous, Overeaters Anonymous, etc. The second step, "came to believe that a power greater than ourselves could restore us to sanity," and the third, "made a decision to turn our will and our lives over to the care of God as we understood Him,"

(Alcoholics Anonymous World Services, 1952) seem to carry with it a penetrating strength. Turning one's life over to a higher power and trusting in that care may bring peace and serenity.

The fourth theme revolved around the choice to go to this particular college, because of it's small size and it's built-in support system. This is very reinforcing to women who have been participants in a support group or a 12-step program. The nurturing environment of the small, intimate college seems to be an auxiliary support system that parallels the nature of the self-help or support group setting. This woman-focused college, providing encouragement through personal and academic support, was found to be an asset. These women do not hesitate to seek or ask for help when it is needed, this seems to be a result of learning to take risks and to ask for help through the support group.

A great asset to participating in a support group or a 12-step program is how it engages the participants in a sense of community and the feeling of being with others who understand, others who have been there, and others who share their pain. The fourth theme is that in most cases, this participation can have a positive effect on the attitude and/or feelings toward family members. It may even have a profound effect on the family towards the participant–a by-product.

Although there was some change in attitude or active participation in community affairs, based on the eight women in this study, the change in attitude regarding community was found to be subtle by most. The fifth theme is the exception of two members of substance addiction groups who had had minimal involvement in the community prior to support group participation, but as a result of the support group community, they are now actively involved with a community project.

This is further enhanced by the example of Cassie's newfound display of community service, which was once exhausting to the point that it was unhealthy and self-sacrificial: the support group helped her to know when and how to say "no." In a sixth theme, it was found that the support group's emphasis encourages one to use the tools for survival and to lose those of self-destruction through over-extension.

CONCLUSION

This study is a proving ground for many theories of growth and development since the crisis which creates a need for the support group is also an obstacle that stunts one's emotional growth for a period of time (Gorski & Miller, 1986). In the case of some addictions, this period can extend over a decade.

Further research could find the differences in women who sponsor others in a support group with those women who are in support groups who are not yet sponsors, or do not have a sponsor. This study may incorporate and compare the findings of Belenky et. al., *Women's Ways of Knowing* (1986) and of Riessman, "The 'Helper' Therapy Principle" (1965), in how they learn and if there is any measure of difference between the two.

This study may be improved by interviewing women who are only in 12-step programs or interviewing only women who are current participants in support groups. The data may prove to be more uniform, easier to sort, or may provide a better base for establishing particular themes.

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THE ROLE OF ADULT EDUCATION THEORY AND PRACTICE IN THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS, 1933-1942

C. Frederick Ralston

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the educational programs of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC's) from a historical case study perspective. The discussion centers on three issues: the identification and importance of the CCC's as a "relief" agency, the different unifying principles of "first generation" adult education theory and practice underlying relief programs, and how the fabric of adult education was woven and strengthened to form the essence of the CCC program in a challenging and uncertain time.

INTRODUCTION

Each generation defines itself by the events it chooses to record from their collective memory. The events are significant in that they usually challenge or change the course of history in a major way. The Great Depression was such an event, and for those who lived through it, the images of relief lines, shantytowns, and home foreclosures still burn bright in their psyche.

Though the Depression started in 1929, it was not until 1933 that the New Deal programs of Franklin Delano Roosevelt started to revive the country's spirits. New laws and executive orders ushered in emergency banking, agriculture, and employment programs; all designed to rescue the country from economic chaos and human despair.

One of the early and favorite bills signed by Roosevelt was the Emergency Conservation Work Act which set in motion the creation of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC's) in March, 1933 (Merrill, 1981). It lasted until 1942 when the men were needed for war production and military service.

Thousands of young men between the ages of 18 and 25 enlisted in the new "forest army" during its first few months of operation and were sent into the forest or park camps (Lacy, 1976, p. 24). There they became enrollees and engaged in replanting forests, building parks, and saving the soil of a worn-out land.

As the work progressed on the projects, it became evident to many of the camp officers that most enrollees lacked the basic skills to handle tools and equipment needed on the job. Also, another discovery was made. Many enrollees had little formal education and some were illiterate (Ermentrout, 1982, p. 13). From these circumstances, the first educational programs were initiated.

Although incidental to the CCC organization, the idea of education in the camps gained quick approval at the federal level. What started as an informal evening activity eventually became an organized learning laboratory in the forests for young adult men (Hill, 1937). The adult education theories and practices that surfaced in camp educational programs are the subjects of this paper.

PURPOSE AND FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the research is to examine the role of adult education theory and practice in the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC's). Theory relates to the assumptions developed by "first

generation" theorists who influenced those responsible for the camp education programs. Practice is defined as the instructional methods and procedures used in the total educational experience.

The issues will be examined through the perspective of the adult education model prevalent in the 1920's and 1930's. The Great Depression afforded adult educators the opportunity to define their profession, and, as a result, build a basic framework of practice from which other education programs can be compared.

Research methodology applicable to this study is the historical case study method. It is used to present a thick description of the programs and administrative units of the CCC's, not to show "cause and effect" relationships. Also, It is not the intent to judge program successes or failures, but to identify them, as noted by the participants involved, using primary and secondary source material. From this method, the researcher can thoroughly investigate and describe the endeavor from a historical perspective.

Data sources include primary sources such as, oral interviews, written recollections, newspaper accounts, documents, reports, artifacts, and site studies of the time. Secondary sources include general histories and academic research. Further, research at the Franklin Delano Roosevelt Library at Hyde Park, New York and the Pennsylvania Bureau of Forestry provided a wealth of information on the background and educational programs of the CCC's. Also, newspaper and professional journal articles of the time are used.

Several issues emerge in the research. The first issue pertains to the identification and importance of the Civilian Conservation Corps as a "relief" and educational agency in the context of the Great Depression and New Deal programs. The second issue pertains to the competing education theories and philosophies of the first generation adult educators, who ultimately produced viable programs of learning. The third issue pertains to the essence and description of the educational program in the CCC camps.

CCC'S AS A RELIEF AGENCY

The legacy of the CCC's seems to endure through its visible remains at state parks, but much of the public memory of the camps and programs is gone. While a relief program, the CCC's completed necessary forestry and soil conservation work on federal and state lands. This was especially true of Pennsylvania with its vast tracts of land (DeCoster, 1995).

Once the legislation to create the CCC's passed Congress, Roosevelt appointed Robert Fechner as its director. Fechner, a vice-president of the International Association of Machinists, formed an advisory council made up of a representative from the Departments of Agriculture, Labor, War, and Interior. These four independent departments had specific roles in carrying out the work of the CCC's and there was very little friction in cooperating with each other (Ermentrout, 1982, p. 9).

For purposes of administering the CCC program, the United States was divided into nine corps areas (similar to the military). Each area contained a certain number of states, and each state was divided into districts. As the program grew, sub-districts were added. Thus, Pennsylvania was in the Third Corps Area, along with Maryland, Virginia, and a small section of West Virginia. Corps headquarters were located in Baltimore, Maryland (U. S. Civilian Conservation Corps, 1936).

The Department of Labor was responsible for selecting the " junior enrollees", usually between 18 and 25 years old, unmarried, and came from a family on relief. Each state governor nominated a selection agent, who was approved by the Department of Labor. It was Labor's responsibility to determine the quotas for each state and assign the number to the selection agent. The agent in turn allocated the openings to the local relief agencies who filled them with qualified applicants. The applicants were assigned to a military camp for physical conditioning.

The War Department examined, conditioned, and clothed the enrollees before sending them to a CCC camp. It was the Army's responsibility for operating the camps, with the Departments of Interior and Agriculture operating the work projects.

The Department of Agriculture, through the Forest Service, selected the camp sights on the national forest land and provided tools and equipment for the projects. States cooperated with the Forest Service in developing sights and projects on state forest lands.

The Department of Interior was responsible for national park services and included national monument, battle sites, and state parks. When educational programs began in the camps, the Office of Education (part of the Department of Interior) had an advisory relationship in developing curriculum and program goals (Ermentrout, 1982).

At the camp level, 200 junior enrollees served under a commanding officer and an assistant who organized the daily life of the camp. Next, the technical staff (either from Agriculture or Interior) included a project superintendent, an engineer, and about ten foremen to develop and complete work projects. Local Experienced Men (LEMs) were used in guiding the army and technical staffs into the unfamiliar forested areas. The LEMs were usually World World One veterans and knew the terrain from their logging days. The staff also included a camp physician, chief cook, and an educational advisor (Merrill, 1981).

Junior enrollees, who enlisted for six months at time, awoke at 6:00 am and worked from 8:00 am to 4:00pm.They had the evening hours free for recreation, reading, or education. For their work, they were paid a dollar a day or $30 a month, of which $25 were sent home (or held in an account if there were no relatives) to help their families survive the depression. They planted trees, constructed dams, built fire roads, and developed park and recreation areas (McEntee, 1940). The hard work made the enrollees productive, but the educational program would help them to think about and determine what goals and dreams were important to achieve.

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF ADULT EDUCATION

The adult educators of the 1920s and 1930s were considered "first generation" practitioners of a new profession. To Stubblefield (1988), adult education emerged as a social practice "focused around the problematic of adult learner needs." As such these early practitioners defined adult education around three unifying principles; the diffusion of knowledge, liberal education, and social education. From their practice came the theoretical and philosophical approaches used in community, organizational, and federal education programs of the New Deal era.

To those who defined adult education as the diffusion of knowledge, concern centered on the lack of a person's knowledge of a cultural heritage to guide their actions in a complex social order (Stubblefield, 1988). These concerns included increased leisure activities of the working class, decline of religious authority, and the general lack of a sense of direction. Therefore, diffusion of knowledge would help people understand the time in which they lived and gain a sense of purpose in their lives. Educators identifying with this principle were Robinson, Dewey, Fisher, Bryson, and Cartwright.

To those who focused on liberal education, concern centered on the "extent of repression and lack of openness to new ideas". The average person had not accepted or understood the advances in specialized knowledge, so they could not put it to practical use. Liberal education could produce people who were "tolerant, open-minded, and would not succumb to propaganda" and would adaptable to change (Stubblefield, 1988, p. 173). Educators who focused on this principle were Martin, Hutchins, Adler, Meiklejohn, and Powell.

To those who focused on social education, the problems centered on the social conditions brought about by industrialization and the rise of the urban centers where people had little freedom. Adult

education was a means of change in which people could take action to better their lives (Stubblefield, 1988). Educators who focused on this principle were Hart, Lindeman, and Overstreet.

From these unifying principles, a variety of institutions carried out the practices of adult education in different settings. Examples of some of the organizations providing, or supporting, adult education programs of the time included evening schools and colleges, cooperative extension services, the Carnegie Corporation, the Kellogg Foundation, the armed forces, labor unions, libraries, religious institutions, and voluntary organizations such as the Muscular Dystrophy Association (Knowles, 1977). In one way or another the three unifying principles impacted the way these organization developed and carries out their education programs.

By the start of the New Deal, adult education practices gained sufficient momentum to influence the relief efforts of governmental agencies. Some of the agencies that had an educational component were the Works Project Administration (WPA), the National Youth Administration (NYA), The Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), and the Civilian Conservation Corps (Kornbluh, 1987).

ESSENCE AND DESCRIPTION OF THE CCC EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The essence and description of the CCC education programs relates to the preceding discussion in interpreting the role of adult education theory and practice in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

In general, the typical junior enrollee was between 18 and 21, many were between 22 and 25 with some older World War One veterans. The enrollee was usually from an urban area with little job experience and whose family was on relief. He was probably among the 50% who had no better than an eighth grade education, or among 34% who had some high school, but did not graduate; about 12% had a high school degree, and about one percent could not read a newspaper or write a letter (Department of Interior. 1934; Lanpher, 1941).

Although under the authority of the camp commander, the educational programs were distinctive from the military and technical missions of the camps. From an educational view, as discussed previously, the most influential theory in developing the CCC educational programs was the "diffusion of knowledge". This is evident through the six dominant aims of the camp educational activities:

1. To develop in each man his powers of self-expression, self entertainment, and self culture.
2. To develop pride and satisfaction in cooperative endeavor.
3. To develop as far as practicable an understanding of the prevailing social and economic conditions, to the end that each man may cooperate intelligently in improving these conditions.
4. To preserve and strengthen good habits of health and of mental development.
5. By such vocational training as is feasible, but particularly by vocational counseling and adjustment activities, to assist each man better to meet his employment problems when he leaves camp.
6. To develop an appreciation of nature and of country life. (U.S. Department of the Interior. Office of Education,1934, pp. 2-4)

One also can see some of the liberal and social education philosophies in the six aims, but to the educational advisors developing the programs, it was important that the enrollees understood their world, could better themselves, and change and improve the conditions which caused their distress. So, from the theories of the 'first generation' adult educators, the CCC programs were voluntarily attended, based on the needs of the enrollee, and followed little curriculum pattern (until the mid 1930s when formal vocational curriculums were introduced), relied on a variety of sources and materials, and qualified enrollees were encouraged to help in the instruction as were the camp commanders, project superintendents, and foremen (U.S. Department of the Interior. 1934). As an example of an unusual educational project, one camp near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania used a ten by

sixteen feet concrete contour map to demonstrate fire-fighting techniques. The leader would place straw over the map, light it, and blow a fan over it. As the fan blew the fire in shifting directions, the enrollee had to describe how he would fight the fire. It was an excellent learning method which supported a previous lecture on fire fighting.

With the total involvement of the staff and enrollees in the educational program, Frank Ernest Hill (1937), who was a field representative for the American Association For Adult Education, compared the CCC camps to learning laboratories. Hill felt that adult educators could apply the successes of this program to future programs for both men and women.

Finally, in interviewing former enrollees, most of them thought their educational experiences were worthwhile. Some of them learned photography or other hobbies, some learned to read and write, others learned a vocation. All agreed their time in the CCC's helped them become productive citizens who could overcome adversity. They lived by the CCC motto, "We can take it."

CONCLUSION

As a result of the Great Depression, governmental involvement increased by producing massive relief programs known as the New Deal. One of the more successful programs was the Civilian Conservation Corps which provided for the conservation of human and natural resources.

As part of the CCC effort, educational activities began in the camps to meet a variety of needs such as literacy skills, personal development, and vocational proficiency. Therefore, the central task of the educational advisor was to provide programs which would encourage voluntary participation by the enrollees, resulting in program development based on the principles of adult education.

There are four implications to the field of adult education found in this study. First, one can see how the fabric of adult education, as produced by the "first generation educators, was woven and strengthen to adapt to the needs of a people in a challenging and uncertain time. Second, one can see how adult education theories and practices guided the CCC educational program. Third, the study adds to the historical base of the profession, of which relatively few specific studies have been made. Last, in regard to current "welfare to work" programs, researchers may use the CCC model as a possible reference for developing new ideas and programs to meet student needs.

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Refereed Papers

ADDRESSING THRESHOLD ISSUES BEFORE DEVELOPING A CODE OF ETHICS FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

Irwin H. Siegel

ABSTRACT

An issue which has been of interest in recent years has been the need for development of a code of ethics for adult educators. This paper develops the definition and theoretical concept of a "code of ethics," and establishes its context, which is then followed by presentation of the threshold issues relative to a code of ethics for adult educators. The need for such a code of ethics is not assumed; rather, arguments supporting and opposing the need to develop such a code of ethics are presented and examined. After summarizing applicable interventions, the author concludes, *arguendo*, that the need for a code of ethics does exist, but in the form of general guidelines applicable to the "adult education" universe. The author concludes by proposing a model for adoption and implementation of a code of ethics for adult educators.

INTRODUCTION

The term "adult education" does not lend itself easily to definition or to determination of scope. Its practice runs the gamut from workplace training to Sunday school to knitting circles to formalized university settings. Its practitioners have graduated as often from the "school of hard knocks" as from our colleges and universities. One must not allow the amorphous nature of the concept to discolor the result: across the centuries, in whatever format, adult education has not only afforded an educational alternative, but has been *the* educational delivery system for adult learners.

Within its often loose, amorphous setting, the world of adult education appears to have been largely dependent upon the ethics of the individual adult educator. A number of writers have recently decried the fact that "Little has appeared in the adult education literature which addresses ethical issues, and, specifically, how ethical considerations relate to the adult education practitioner." (Singarella and Sork, 1983, p. 244). This paper reviews the need for a code of ethics for adult educators, and suggests a model for addressing three threshold issues involving such a code of ethics: (a) form; (b) method of adoption; and (c) method of implementation. All are pre-content development issues. For purposes of this paper, "adult education" is defined as a "systematic, planned instructional program for adults." (Verner and Booth, 1964, p.2).

DEFINITION/THEORETICAL CONCEPT OF "CODE OF ETHICS"

Dewey (1889) defined the business of ethics: "to detect the element of obligation in conduct, to examine conduct to see what gives it its worth." (Dewey, 1889, p. 241). He stated: "the moral endeavor of man thus takes the form not of isolated fancies about right and wrong, not of attempts to frame a morality for himself, not of efforts to bring into being some praiseworthy ideal never realized; but the form of sustaining and furthering the moral world of which he is a member." (Dewey, 1889, p. 347).

Singarella and Sork (1983) provide a more specific definition: "Ethics is the branch of philosophy which investigates that which is good, bad, wrong, morally approved or disapproved within groups or cultures." (p.244). Lest the reader assume that the concept is strictly theoretical, Brockett (1988) cites no less than Aristotle for the proposition that "ethics involves the pursuit of practical knowledge." (Brockett, 1988, p.3). The link to adult education occurs in determining the mission of adult education and the specific delivery system resulting from that mission. Although Brockett (1988) suggests that "it has only been recently that authors have begun directly to confront specific ethical dilemmas that can emerge in the education of adults (Brockett, 1988, p.4), the literature is

surprisingly abundant with articles and books setting forth ethical issues in adult education, many of which are listed by Lawler (1996). Lawler (1991) also provides us with a context for ethical issues, albeit within the forum of continuing higher education: "Ethical problems arise on different levels. Policies and practices can be challenged on ethical grounds, such as questioning whether a particular policy is fair to all it will affect. In continuing higher education, practitioners challenge policies they believe to be unfairly discriminating against adult students. Similarly, actions of individuals are often the subject of ethical judgment, as when one claims that a person did not keep a promise. For many higher education administrators, this distinction is sharply defined when the time comes for an individual to carry out a policy which he or she believes is ethically wrong or questionable." (Lawler, 1991, p.20). It is not within the scope of this paper to describe in detail all of those issues; rather, the point is that the issues exist and often need to be addressed by practitioners who may be unaware that they are addressing an ethical issue, and may be woefully unprepared to do so. If the pronouncement by Singarella and Sork (1983) that "education in general, and adult education in particular, gives little attention to ethical issues" (p.245), is no longer accurate, to this date no formal code of ethics encompassing the wide spectrum of adult education has been developed and instituted, one reason being that the threshold issues must first be fully addressed. (For purposes of this paper, "code of ethics" is defined as "a set of basic principles or values and related rules of right conduct to which members of a profession generally subscribe." (Connelly and Light, 1991, p. 234)).

NEED FOR A CODE OF ETHICS FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

THRESHOLD ISSUES

The threshold issues relating to development, adoption and implementation of a code of ethics for adult educators include: (a) need for a code of ethics; (b) form of the code of ethics; (c) mechanisms for adoption and implementation of the code of ethics; and (d) scope and content of the code of ethics. The subject of the scope and content of the code of ethics is largely beyond the purview of this paper, which treats the other issues as basic threshold issues to be resolved *prior to* development of content.

Purpose of a Code of Ethics for Adult Educators

Lawler (1996) has succinctly summarized the purpose of a code of ethics for adult educators: "A code of ethics represents a consensus among practitioners concerning the standards of conduct that apply to professional activities. These standards must address the most important ethical issues that arise in practice and set out guidelines for professional conduct...While codes cannot guarantee ethical behavior, they can make clear what is expected of ethical practitioners and create peer pressure for conformity to ethical ideals. " (Lawler, 1996, p.2). Freeman, Sheaffer and Whitson (1993, p.9) concur: "While a code of ethics in no way assures compliance with a set of standards, it can provide guidelines for practice and a public declaration of professional intentions and aspirations." One would think that such noble purposes would readily lead to universal agreement on the need for adoption of such a code. Reality reflects the opposite: a philosophical battle has raged over several generations concerning the need for a code of ethics for adult education practitioners. A summary of the arguments appears below, as that issue is basic to the entire subject.

Arguments Favoring the Need to Adopt a Code of Ethics

According to Dewey, "A moral institution sets before [its members] the common end or ideal and insist[s] upon this as the real end of individual conduct." (Dewey, 1889, p. 348). An early argument for implementing ethical standards in teaching was made by Wilson (1982), who recognized and defined "abuses" of educators, which he colorfully nicknamed "power, pretense and piggybacking": "abuse of teachers. authority; publishing students' work as our own; using others' ideas as our own; loading the evidence in favor of our views through selective use of data; propagandizing; breaching the confidentiality of data supplied by students." (Wilson, 1982, p.269). Schurr (1982, p.322) concurred, calling for a code of conduct for academicians "whether they like it or not." Insofar as adult education is concerned, Connelly and Light (1991) are often cited as early proponents for a code of ethics for adult educators: "We believe adult education should make a strong statement of social responsibility through developing a code of ethics...The very first statement of principle in the adult education code should emphasize responsibility and accountability to society." (p.234). Rather than Wilson's total focus on conduct of educators, Connelly and Light (1991) recommended

focusing on broad areas of inclusive philosophy: pluralism; respect for learners; and respect for educators. Griffith (1991) called for a code of ethics for adult educators, particularly addressing concerns for (a) avoiding harmful actions; (b) the general welfare of the community, nation and world; and (c) "serving the legitimate learning needs of the public and the legitimate economic needs of those who are employed to carry out such programs." (Griffith, 1991, p.4). McDonald and Wood (1993) concluded from their empirical study (one of the few in this area) that "If there were doubts before this study about whether significant numbers of adult educators support the idea of a professional code of ethics for themselves and their colleagues, those doubts seem to have been put at rest." (McDonald and Wood, 1993, p.256). Certainly the extensive work performed by Lawler in attempting to develop the content of a code of ethics presupposes that the need for such a code is a foregone conclusion. However, the arguments against the need for a code of ethics, while somewhat scarce in the literature in recent years, are not easily dismissed. Both sets of arguments emanate from sociological and psychological foundations.

Arguments Opposing the Need to Develop a Code of Ethics

Singarella and Sork (1983), while discussing real or perceived ethical issues in adult education, state that "we do not advocate the development of an ethical code." (p.246), even while admittedly attempting to stimulate discussion with respect to issues which would become part of a code. Their reasoning, which has been widely cited, is that "We doubt that the field of adult education is mature enough to reach agreement on a code of ethics which would apply to all practitioners. Further, we are not convinced that such a code would be desirable." (Singarella and Sork, 1983, p.250). Carlson (1988), in rejecting the need for a code of ethics, frames his arguments within a psychological context. Professional codes of ethics are dismissed as "rhetorical facades of public service erected to preserve and enhance a profession's independent and monopolistic control over an area of social interaction." (Carlson, 1988, p. 165). Repeatedly, the relationship of a code of ethics to "professionalization" emerges: "The slippery path of professionalization leads to the monopoly by an elite over a particular area of practice." (p.166). An unpublished doctoral dissertation by Wright (1970) is cited by Carlson for the following concepts which he believes often appear in formalized codes of ethics: (1) belief in authority based on expertise; (2) belief in a professional monopoly based on that authority; and (3) maintenance of the monopoly of authority by admonition against transfer of professional skills to clients. (Carlson, 1988, pp.168-169). Carlson assailed the *Principles of Good Practice in Continuing Education* (discussed below) and codes of ethics in general as "clearly based on a positivist philosophy and behaviorist psychology, the rock of the mechanistic dogma of schooling." (p.171). he decried the "loss to the individual...freedom to learn would be dramatically diminished." (p.172) He summarizes: "Instead of trying to institutionalize adult education with a professional code of ethics, practitioners would be better absorbed in developing their own personal values and in gaining an understanding of the historical and philosophical foundations of their work." (pp.174-175). Certification also rears its head: James (1981, p.85) argues against certification of adult educators as "unfeasible and unnecessary." Freeman, Sheaffer and Whitson (1983, p.10) caution that "The dichotomy between the 'authority' theory of professionalization, and the inclusive nature of adult and continuing education is a further indicator of the potential inconsistencies of a professional code of ethics for adult and continuing education." (Freeman, Sheaffer and Whitson, 1993, p.10). Query: is professionalization synonymous with or an inevitable byproduct of ethics?

In short, perhaps the quantity of arguments supports the need for a code of ethics for adult educators, and, based upon the interventions below, perhaps a consensus of adult educators would support development of such a code, assuming that practitioners recognize what it entails. However, the arguments against the need for a code of ethics are substantive and should not be summarily dismissed or ignored by the proponents of a code of ethics who assume that the issue has been decided.

Applicable Interventions: Empirical Research

A relatively early study by Clement, Pinto and Walker (1978) is often cited as the seminal, if not the only empirical research in this area, at least until 1993. The study, commissioned by the American Society for Training and Development, surveyed practitioners (i.e. trainers) for perceived examples of unethical or improper behavior. Seven (7) examples of "unethical" behavior were reported, based

on frequency of mention: (1) lack of professional development; (2) violations of confidence; (3) use of 'cure-all' programs; (4) dishonesty regarding program outcomes; (5) failure to give credit; (6) abuse of trainees; and (7) other improper behavior. (Clement, Pinto and Walker, 1978, p.11). Interestingly, only 999 of the 2,790 ASTD members surveyed responded to the open-ended question eliciting the above examples. (p.10).

A significant empirical study was conducted by McDonald and Wood (1993). The study involved thirteen (13) primarily open-ended questions "designed to collect data regarding adult educators' perceptions about the need for a code of ethics for adult education and to gather information about ethical dilemmas the responders had encountered as adult educators." (McDonald and Wood, 1993, p.243). Closed-end questions were employed to determine attitudes toward a code of ethics. The survey was distributed to 454 educators within Indiana, and returned by 249 (56%). The findings may be briefly summarized as follows: (1) Confidentiality, ownership of instructional materials and employment practices were the three most frequently cited ethical dilemmas facing practitioners; (2) 52.2% of respondents felt there should be a code of ethics; 14.9% responded negatively; and 28.1% were not sure (not surprisingly, since the term was never defined!); (3) 69% of respondents were unaware if a code existed applicable to them; (4) confidentiality, treatment of learners, and the relationship between learner and adult educator were the three most frequently cited issues of what a code should address; and (5) on a Likert scale, based on a directed question, the function statement that a code of ethics "gives the profession integrity or credibility" elicited the most agreement. Due to the weakness of the survey format, which elicited largely anecdotal responses, skepticism must prevail at the conclusion that "any doubts" as to the need for a code of ethics "have been put to rest." (McDonald and Wood, 1993, p.256).

Lawler and Fielder (1993) conducted a survey funded by the Association of Continuing Higher Education (ACHE). A random sample of the 1,500 members of ACHE was surveyed using the critical incident technique, again largely anecdotal, in order to identify ethical problems, which were then categorized. Based upon the results, the authors concluded: "ACHE should consider following the lead of other professional organizations providing formal support for members who are dealing with complex ethical problems. This means developing some kind of written statement or code that will set out the profession's considered judgment about the ethical obligations of its practitioners to its stakeholders revealed in the survey: superiors, clients, colleagues, staff, faculty and the community." (Lawler and Fielder, 1993, p.32). The directed question as to whether a code of ethics is needed apparently was not asked. Lawler and Fielder (1991) also developed a model for analyzing ethical problems. In addition, Lawler (1996) surveyed ACHE members via case studies to determine principles which could be incorporated in an ACHE code of ethics. She expressed concern about the anemic response rate (10% to the first survey): "are members of ACHE not interested in ethical issues, are they too busy to answer surveys, was the survey too difficult to respond to?" (Lawler, 1996, p.12). The first issue is the threshold issue: if members are not interested, why then go through the effort to develop the body of a code of ethics?

A FAILED INTERVENTION: *THE PRINCIPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE IN CONTINUING EDUCATION*

In 1984, the Council on the Continuing Education Unit (CCEU) published the *Principles of Good Practice in Continuing Education*. The *Principles* are heavily outcome-based and were roundly criticized as behavioristic, too narrow and biased by Carlson (1988), providing him with an example of the negative aspect of a code of ethics. Even pro-code supporters Connelly and Light (1991) agree that Carlson's assessment "seems accurate." (p.235), although no less a figure than Malcolm Knowles termed the *Principles* a "major breakthrough." (Brockett, 1988, p.8). It does not appear likely that the principles will serve substantially as a future model for a code of ethics for adult educators.

FORM OF THE CODE OF ETHICS FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

Out of the confusion and arguments, perhaps a form for a code of ethics emerges. Although, *arguendo*, a need for a code of ethics appears to exist, the code would have to contain general principles applicable to all constituencies and stakeholders, allowing more specific standards to be developed by appropriate constituencies. The major criticism of the *Principles* was largely that is

was too specific for a diffuse audience. A general set of guidelines within the ambit of a code of ethics has been suggested by Freeman, Sheaffer and Whitson (1993), Brockett (1988) and Connelly and Light (1993): "It is not unusual for professions to publish standards of practice more specific than a code of ethics for different aspects of practice. Adult education should follow this same format and distinguish between a code with general principles and other policy documents with very specific prescriptions for specialty practice areas." (Connelly and Light, 1993, p. 235). The writer is not uncomfortable in assuming that a consensus could be established for supporting a code of ethics within the general guidelines format, given the research summarized in the earlier sections of this paper.

METHOD OF ADOPTION OF CODE OF ETHICS

Although the primary threshold issues are those of the need, and consequent form of a code of ethics, the question of who should develop a code of ethics has been a subject of discussion, often resulting in charges of "professionalization." It is not a difficult reach to assume that the preponderance of adult educators are not interested in being licensed or regulated by the state; therefore, a state-mandated code of ethics such as that adopted by Texas, for example, may not be desirable. Connelly and Light (1991) suggest that the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) assume the task of drafting a "common code." (p.239). The empirical study by McDonald and Wood (1993) in Indiana sampled adult educators listed with the state, plus members of other state chapters. Lawler's research has been funded by ACHE. Many adult practitioners belong to the University Continuing Education Association (UCEA), which may be developing its own code of ethics. Should each organization autonomously develop its own code of ethics for its membership?

A better approach is presented in the model proposed in this paper. The writer recommends that representatives from all of the major professional associations, reflecting the interests of all stakeholders, form a task force to study development of a universal code of ethics for adult education practitioners. Obviously, the principles set forth therein would be broad and universally applicable. The principles could even be entitled "guidelines." (Freeman, Shaeffer and Whitson, 1983). Each association would be responsible for securing the feedback of its membership as to the content of the code of ethics, which, when developed, would be voted upon by membership of each association. The task force would be ongoing, and would provide research and approved standards to continually upgrade the code of ethics. This would constitute a "bottom-up" approach which would build consensus by the members of the professional associations; thus, a "buy-in" would be assured. "If adult educators are to have a system for recognizing high quality performance and for producing reform where unprofessional behavior is demonstrated, adult educators themselves will need to devise such a system, for it is unlikely that any other group or government agency will assume that responsibility." (Griffith, 1991, p.4).

METHOD FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF CODE OF ETHICS

Assuming that a code of ethics is developed and adopted via the model described in this paper, who will be responsible for its implementation? Should sanctions be imposed? If so, who will bear responsibility for such imposition? The associations themselves? That would prove to be unworkable, for obvious reasons. The state? Not unless practitioners are licensed "professionals." The most appropriate source for implementation, as depicted in the model, is the institution itself which employs or is responsible for supervision of the practitioner. This is the only true link in the chain, the only area where privity of contract exists, which would afford the legal basis for enforcement. The model depicts the line of communication of the code/guidelines, extending from the professional organizations whose membership will have adopted the code to the actual employing/supervising institutions who will bear responsibility for its implementation. The institutions have the power to interpret and apply the code/guidelines to practitioners. The institutions would be responsible for communicating ("top down") the code of ethics to adult education practitioners. The institutions would also communicate interpretations (within the strict boundaries of confidentiality) to the associations for dissemination to the task force. No separate bureaucracies would be created. This approach could result in relative uniformity, yet desired decentralization.

CONCLUSION

The earlier quotation from Singarella and Sork (1983) as to the lack of "maturity" in the field of adult education to develop a code of ethics has often been cited as a reason against creating such a code. However, the addressing of the threshold questions in this paper and the resulting model for adoption and implementation could result in development and implementation of a workable code of ethics to cover the diffuse universe of adult education. Scope and content are more feasibly developed when the issues of form, adoption and implementation procedures are addressed. A universal code of ethics, consisting of general guidelines, adopted and implemented in the method provided, should result in the pronouncement by Singarella and Sork (1983) as to the field lacking "maturity" being relegated to that of irrelevance.

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ANGELOU AND INCARCERATED WOMEN: THEIR PERSONAL NARRATIVES AS A PROCESS FOR ANALYZING ADULT DEVELOPMENT

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Irene C. Baird

ABSTRACT

Maya Angelou's narrative of her late teen years provides insights into her transition into adulthood and serves as a mechanism for examining the lives of incarcerated females of the same age who reflect on her experiences for creating self-awareness. Angelou's and the incarcerated women's own words to describe their experiences were an effective medium for examining development. Applying traditional theories, however, reinforced the need for a framework that includes cross-cultural learning as well as feminist perspectives.

INTRODUCTION

As she begins her personal narrative in *Gather Together in My Name*, Maya Angelou sets her developmental parameters with the reflection that "I was seventeen, very old, embarrassingly young, [unmarried], with a son of two months and I still lived with my mother and stepfather" (Angelou, 1974, p.3). Hers was an intellect being molded by extensive reading rather than formal schooling. As an African American with deeply ingrained distrust of and disdain for whites, she was, in her words, "... a [volatile] mixture of arrogance and insecurity" (p.5). In 1940's California, at 17, she leaves her mother's boarding house with her son and begins a two year journey which takes her through 8 jobs: cook, waitress, madam, dancer, prostitute, restaurant manager, model; relationships with 5 men: war veteran, dancing partner, pimp, restaurant owner/boxing promoter, heroin addict. The narrative and presumably this phase of her life concludes when she realizes "that she had seen the underworld of society to which she would never want to return. In her words, "I had no idea what I was going to make of my life, but I ... had found my innocence. I swore I'd never lose it again" (Angelou, 1974, p. 181).

An analysis of Angelou's growth and development during this 2 year period served as a link, a mechanism for examining the lives of incarcerated women of comparable age, race, socio-economic status and with similar life experiences. Angelou's own words in *Gather Together in My Name* were the source for examining her development, using as a yardstick various adult development theories. A humanities learning model, one of reading (frequently Angelou's writing), reflection and writing provided the shared stories of young women who were working towards growth through a process of self-identity and self-acceptance. They, too, faced societal barriers with imprisonment as a potential wake up call and permanent stigmatization. Unlike Angelou they are products of a prison-oriented culture with drugs, abuse and violence having a significant impact on their lives; theirs is the underworld of society. They, too, did not know what to make of their lives; however, these groups chose to find the words to define themselves. Analysis of Angelou's and the prison women's narratives proved to be an effective medium for looking at their growth. It also reinforced the need for a framework that included race, gender and socio-economic status for assessing both development and learner's needs.

NARRATIVE AS DEVELOPMENT LENS

MAYA ANGELOU'S STORY

The ancient and universal idea that there are distinct patterns and stages of growth over a person's lifetime make parts of Angelou's story and feelings understandable and commonly shared by adults (Merriam, 1984). Jung's first life stage of youth addresses the problem of putting childhood behind, of controlling sexual instincts, of overcoming feelings of inferiority. Erickson assigns to young adulthood the stage for developing a sense of identity. Throughout the period from 17 to 19, Angelou constantly sought to establish adult identity and position. Without employable skills, she chose to leave her mother's house and provide for herself and her son. At a later date, returning briefly to Arkansas, she enjoyed being treated as an equal in conversations with adults from her childhood. She prided herself in her control over her feelings in front of others. She recognized inherently that she was well read, was grammatically correct in her speech. To overcome her inferiority in social situations, she coped by rationalizing that she was a snob at all levels. "I was a madam and thought myself morally superior to the whores. I was a waitress and believed myself cleverer than the customers I served. I was a lonely unmarried mother and held myself to be freer than the married women I met" (Angelou, 1974, p.51).

Relevant to Levinson's second stage of development, that of commitment to adult roles, Angelou struggled, was often conflicted. After leaving her son with a trusted caretaker to be at her ailing mother's bedside, on her return she became frantic finding the caretaker and her son gone, the house boarded up. At the same time, " ... [my] baby amused me. I could not and did not consider him a person ... He was my baby, rather like a pretty living doll that belonged to me. I was myself too young and unformed a human being to think of him as a human being. I loved him. He was cute. He laughed a lot and gurgled and he was mine (Angelou, 1974, p.34).

Angelou's relationship with men in her young life lends credence to Sheehy's proposition in her 1970's popular *Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life* that women are often held back from establishing an identity because of their need to establish it through a man. The young Angelou was on a continuous search for "mister right." "Like most young women, I wanted a man, any man to give me a June Allyson screen-role life ... and I for one, obviously, would have done anything to get that life (Angelou 1974, p. 160). During those 2 years, she was on a dangerous precipice of mixing hustlers, drug addicts, pimps and other characters of the underworld. If not, as she says, for the kindness of the heroin addict who "shot up" before her eyes to teach her a lesson, she would have succumbed.

Merriam (1984) also addresses sequential models based on specific areas of growth, among them Perry's (male) model of intellectual development. In spite of her "book knowledge," her ability to pass job and army tests, Angelou did not have the experience to understand how to apply her knowledge to her situation and context. Often she made "reasoned" decisions, a common sense approach to resolving a problem. Other times she typed herself as "young and crazy as a lizard. Surely this was making it" (p.12).

Another conceptual view of development is described by Anderson and Hayes (1995) as recycling. They contend that human development is a ceaseless and flowing evaluation and reevaluation of life's goals and experiences. They believe that identity is not formed during any one state, but that it "consists of a process of contraction and expansion of the self not as the stop-and-start process characterized by stage theory (p.23). While we see only part of Angelou's life between the age of seventeen and nineteen, the idea of recycling and reevaluation can be recognized. After each episode in her search for safety and respectability, she takes stock of the situation and sometimes moves forward. When her career as a dancer ends, she says, "So much for show biz. I was off to live real life" (Angelou, 1974, p.70). While at other times she seems to go backwards. Of the man who drew her into prostitution, she says, "I was his Bobby Sock Baby, and he was going to make me so happy" (p.103).

In addition to the traditional models described above, there is a growing recognition that a person's social and cultural experience and context have a great impact on development (Merriam, 1984; Merriam and Caffarella, 1991). Bee's (1987) reference to social class as a critical determinant in the variety of opportunities, choices and barriers is especially relevant. In addition to her socio-economic status, Angelou's gender and race denied her the luxury of undergoing the traditional stages of development. The results of the life choices and the path to adulthood for Maya Angelou in San Francisco in the late 1940's were not just a matter of becoming a mature adult; they were a matter of life and death for her and her son, a survival mechanism.

IMPRISONED WOMEN'S STORIES

The personal narratives of groups of young incarcerated women resulted from a humanities learning model of reading, critical reflection and writing; women's literature was the link that encouraged the learners to better understand their own lives through the experiences of recognized female authors. As one who faced traumas and successfully overcame them, Maya Angelou was the favorite author and role model.

Just as Angelou, the learners were a "[volatile] mixture of arrogance and insecurity." Unlike Angelou, who was buoyed by caring family such as her brother and grandmother, most of these women were victims of horrendous abuse as children, a pattern that carried over into adulthood (Chesney-Lind, 1997). Rather than going through an "orderly" process of development, they exist, struggle for survival and fall prey to destructive inducements. The mere fact of imprisonment raises questions about their having made the transition into responsible adulthood. Rather, at the beginning of the program, they ask questions such as

Why am i angry
am i angry cause my mother past away or am i angry cause i got hooked on drugs lost my place and my kids or am i angry cause my grandmother or my aunt would not take my kids until i got better i really am so confused who am i so angry

Feelings of insecurity and inferiority abounded at several levels, provoked by marginal existence on the "outside."

The feeling of nothing lurks in your mind
tells you you are nothing
tells you your no good, you're not loved
takes away all the confidence
replaces them with fear

Fear also prevailed on the "inside," the fear of returning to a life of no promise, where drugs and prostitution became a pattern of life yet a certain guarantee of return to prison. One wrote resolutely:

Sometimes I felt the world had it in for me
cause nothing I ever did seemed to be satisfactory
[I] found a new world to escape through DRUGS
shooting heroin, taking pill, smoking crack was my new LOVE
And I declare, I don't want to escape like this no mo'!

For both Angelou and the incarcerated women relationships assumed significant proportions. Angelou wrote, "Love was what I was looking for" (Angelou 1974, p.18); a prison woman wrote, "Please, God, hear my prayer ... send me someone, known or unknown, to 'be there' ..." Many were

damaging, such as this one:

> You robbed me of my childhood
> you robbed me of normal life
> you robbed me of my identity
> you took away my self esteem, you took my pride
> you took away all of my hopes and dreams
> you built up my fears created more tears
> Can you see the scars that I bare for your crimes?

Applying a theory that assigns controlling sexual instincts, as does Jung, is not applicable to these women. So many had been sexually abused from early childhood; sexual control, as a result, was not even a consideration as they assessed their growth. It was typical to have many partners as reassurance of being loved --- "someone known or unknown 'to be there' ..." Prostitution, on the other hand, was considered a quick, easy way to survive, lacking socially acceptable employment, sometimes to support children. The women discussed the topic but never wrote of it.

Categorized as illiterate because of their incarceration, these women were avid readers and impressively creative in their writing. Though not intellectual snobs, this was an activity that evidenced a heightened sense of self.

> You think your doing something by keeping me in a cell
> but you should know this is my heaven and not my hell,
> I'm a strong black woman still alive
> Just like Maya still I rise

Toward the end of a program cycle and influenced again by Angelou's short stories on new directions, this woman wrote:

> I always took that back road
> where the camps were few and far between.
> I loved the dark side - chased it - sought it out.
> When I saw that light at the end of the tunnel -
> I ran the other way -
> I know now somehow a small beacon found its way through!
> Time to get off the back roads -
> come into the sunshine.

CONCLUSIONS

Though of a limited nature, this study is significant in showing that personal narratives can be a mirror of adult development. The study also reinforced the efficacy of the humanities model as a medium for implementing one of Hayes and Flannery's (1997) recommendations, that of having women use their lived experiences and meaning-making for examining personal growth as well as the broader social and political contexts (p. 76). This feminist perspective is especially pertinent for learning about marginalized women, such as the incarcerated, since they are not routinely encouraged to develop a voice. Although an attempt was made to examine growth with traditional models that incorporated an interface of individual with society, a missing link became obvious: inclusion of race, gender and socio-economic status. This is compatible with critical feminist theories that focus not only on the individual and her productivity but also on societal contexts such as power and control issues that oppress (Hayes & Flannery, 1997; Whalen, 1997). The story of a young Maya Angelou and her narratives as a link for incarcerated women's search for identity should remind adult educators from the dominant culture, who are working with such learners, of the need to examine all their assumptions about development and learners' needs.

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PARENT CARE: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this review is to explore the definitions, demographics, and issues of family caregiving. Specifically, this paper focuses on the literature concerning adult children caring for their aging parents, a phenomenon referred to as "parent care." By focusing on parent care this review targets a group that consists mostly of middle-aged women, many of whom are working outside the home and raising their own families, in addition to their responsibilities to the older generation. This review examines the educational needs and possible educational interventions available for family caregivers.

DEMOGRAPHICS

The United States (US) population is aging, a fact that presents significant challenges now and in the future, and the rate of age change is rapid. The rate of increase (expected to triple between 1980-2020) in the oldest age group of our population (85 years+) makes it the fastest growing segment of the population (Bowers, 1987). Life expectancy has increased and women continue to outlive men. As life expectancy "continues to rise and disability increases in prevalence, provision of social support to older parents is becoming an expectation in early and middle adulthood" (Manheimer, 1994, p. 362). The oldest age group is the most likely to have chronic health conditions; those that are not cured, only "managed," and which require ongoing care and assistance from others. Bowers (1987) reports that the need for caregiving increases with age. While only 6.3% of those under 70 were "extremely impaired," 9.3% of those between 75-79 and 22.5% of those over 85 were extremely impaired (Bowers, 1987, p. 21). The National Center for Health Statistics performed a study in 1982 which estimates the number of family caregivers serving impaired older persons to be approximately 2.2 million (Stone, Cafferata, & Sangl, 1987). Brody (1985) contends that up to 40% of older adults in the community depend on others for direct care, home management, and health or social support needs. The number of family caregivers today is estimated at 22.4 million; that is, one in four households are involved with caring for older persons (Duke, 1997).

The composition of the family is also changing (Dychtwald, 1990). The ratio of children to parents is decreasing. Most married couples now have more parents than children. The fact that couples are having their children later in life also increases the likelihood of the simultaneous dependency of minor children and aging parents (Brody, 1995). The years a woman can expect to be widowed is increasing due to our society's marriage patterns and the life expectancy gap between men and women. We are also starting to experience four- and even five-generation families. There are more diverse family compositions as the rate of divorce, blended-families, single-sex couples, and single- head-of-household families climbs (Pratt & Kethley, 1988). Further, growth in the number of minorities is creating greater ethnic and racial diversity.

The other factor that has helped to create anxiety concerning family care of older family members is the entry of women into the work force. Care of parents and children traditionally fell to non-working women in the past, but now more women are employed. By the year 2000 women are expected make up 47% of the work force (Older Women's League [OWL], 1989).

WHO ARE THE FAMILY CAREGIVERS?

Contrary to the popular myth that older adults are neglected, alone, and ignored by their families, the family is the primary source in this country of care and assistance to older persons. Family caregivers

are part of what is considered the "informal" support system that consists of family, friends, and neighbors. Family caregivers provide "the expressive support--socialization, concern, affection, and sense of having someone on whom to rely" (Brody, 1985, p.20). Depending on the care recipient's level of impairment, these caregivers also provide direct care to their family members. Activities of daily living (ADLs) consist of tasks such as bathing, dressing, feeding, and toileting. Those with lesser levels of impairment may need only assistance with independent activities of daily living (IADLs). IADLs include tasks such as managing finances, cooking meals, getting to the doctor, or using the telephone. Other filial responsibilities may include financial assistance and mediating on the parent's behalf with formal organizations for services (Bowers, 1987). According to Tennstedt, McKinlay, and Sullivan (1989), 60% of care recipients have at least two caregivers. No less important, in approximately 11% of families, parent care is managed long-distance by an adult child (Duke, 1997).

The "formal support system" refers to the agencies, such as human service organizations and home health care agencies, that provide services to older adults. Formal services may be supported by public funds or by fees charged for the services provided. The fact that Medicare and most health insurances do not finance any type of "custodial" or long-term chronic care leaves the burden of care to the family. Families provide 80% to 90% of the care and assistance to non-institutionalized older adults (Brody, 1995; Heery, 1991). Walker, Pratt, and Eddy (1995) reason that both the informal network for caregiving and the formal system with their "unique and vital resources . . . are needed if family caregiving is to be sustained with positive outcomes for the care recipient, professional providers, and, ultimately, society" (p. 409).

Although a precise definition is missing from the literature, family caregiving, according to Walker et al. (1995), is defined as "occurring when one or more family members gave aid or assistance to other family members beyond that required as part of normal everyday life" (p. 402). Yet family caregiving is not easily distinguished from the aid given as a part of the normal exchange in family relationships. Caregiving is usually the long-term, sometimes permanent, unbalanced flow of assistance, and not sporadic or short-term help. One of five caregivers have been providing care to an older family member for five or more years (OWL, 1989). Although caregiving responsibilities may develop suddenly following an acute illness or injury, generally, caregiving begins when an aging family member requires increasing assistance due to a debilitating chronic condition or disease. Care may be modest initially and, although the pattern of care is unpredictable, increase progressively (Tennstedt et al., 1989). Brody (1985) points out that parent care situations are variable depending on the "health, marital and income status, living arrangements, geographic distance from parent, personality, adaptive capacities, and quality of the parent-child relationships" (p. 22).

Although there is great diversity, there also are characteristics common to most family caregivers. According to data compiled by Carter (1994), approximately 80% of caregivers are women, and 61% are married. Thus, a disproportionate share of family caregivers are wives and daughters. Stone et al. (1987) found that 72% were women, 23% were wives, and 29% were daughters of aging parents (20% were other women). The largest proportion of daughters were in their 40s and 50s, while one-third were under 40 or over 60 years of age (Brody, 1985). A survey conducted in 1996 by the National Alliance for Caregivers revealed that "the `typical' caregiver is a 46-year-old woman who is employed and also spends about 18 hours per week caring for her mother who lives nearby" (Duke, 1997, p.9).

Various factors contribute to caregiving being a more stressful experience for women than men. According to Walker et al. (1995), daughters and daughter-in-laws (rather than sons) provide more of the direct "hands on" type of help and that those tasks are usually required on a regular basis. Daughters are 3.22 times more likely than sons to provide ADLs and 2.56 times more likely to provide IADLs. Also, daughters are 8 times more likely to provide assistance with household chores (Dwyer & Seccombe, 1991). Walker et al. (1995) states that women's socialization reinforces "beliefs about their natural propensity to nurture and simultaneously reinforces beliefs that caring is unnatural for men" (p. 405).

These findings should not discount the role of men who compose 27% of family caregivers (Stone et

al, 1987). Husbands who care for their spouses comprise 13%, and sons and other male family members compose the balance (7% each). Lee, Dwyer, and Coward (1993) report strong gender differences in caregiving tasks and efforts. Husbands are most likely to abandon gender roles in the care of their spouses. Sons provide more of the IADL assistance, rather than direct care. Thus tasks performed for parents are gender-based with women providing the majority of the direct or personal care (OWL, 1989). Lee et al. (1993) also report that there is a strong same-gender preference for caregiving which accounts for the dominance of woman-to-woman care situations. Increased involvement of sons in their father's care also supports this claim.

Middle-aged caregivers may have to assume responsibility for aging parents even though 40% of them still have dependent children to raise, according to Heery (1991). This phenomenon has been termed the "sandwich generation," and portrays the middle generation "squeezed" by its responsibilities to both the older generation and children. Besides the responsibility of children, some middle-aged adults may also have a demanding grandparenting role to fulfill. Multiple caregiving to more than one parent is also increasing (Brody, 1985).

Employment adds another dimension to the experiences of the middle-aged caregiver. According to Scharlach (1987), 62% of women who are 45 to 54 years of age are in the labor force. Women in this age range are also most likely to be providing parent care. Even when employed, daughters gave the same amount of care as those daughters who were not employed (Walker et al., 1995). Lechner (1993) finds that 55% of all caregivers also are employed and this number is growing. By the year 2000, "61% of new hires will be women" (Lechner, 1993, p. 467).

There is an economic impact resulting from caregiving. Statistics reveal that 10% to 20% of caregivers leave their jobs (Dychtwald, 1990) and one-fifth to one-third change hours (Stone et al., 1987). Even prior to the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993, blue collar workers were more likely to take time off without pay, yet they are least likely to be able to afford to do so (Osterkamp, 1991). According to Heery (1991), "More than half of caregivers manage to keep their jobs, but lose productivity" (p. 65). Sommers and Shields (1987) contend that society places a lower social value on women's work outside the home. Women's traditional gender roles have reflected value in domestic labor, nurturance, kinship behavior and ties between women (Lee et al., 1993). Consequently, because society views paid work as secondary to family obligations, role conflicts result. Women also earn less, contribute less to the retirement systems (due to breaks in service), and are at greater risk of late life poverty (Pratt & Kethley, 1988).

PARENT CARE RESEARCH

Brody (1985) believes parent care is so widespread that she proposes that it should be considered a normative life event of adult children. According to Brody (1985) adult children today "provide more care and more difficult care to more parents over much longer periods of time than they did in the good old days" (p. 21). "If you are a woman, you can expect to spend 18 years of your life helping an aging parent and 17 years caring for children" according to OWL (1989, p. 1) Yet despite research findings and conclusions, most adult children "do little in the way of preparation for the eventuality of dependent parents" (Manheimer, 1994, p. 362). Is this by choice, or is it because they don't know where to turn or what to do? Are they so overwhelmed by conflicting roles that they ignore the inevitable aspect of their parents aging? According to Manheimer (1994), the "failure to identify oneself as a caregiver can have important implications" (p. 554). He believes that it is difficult to recruit and receive services appropriately if the caregiver is unaware of the availability of relevant services.

The Care-Net (Caregivers Network) survey conducted by the Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development at Georgia Southwestern College, lists "information" and "specialized training" as the priority needs identified by family caregivers (Carter, 1994). In the 1990 Care-Net survey caregivers said that they desire, but "don't have the information they need[,] to cope successfully" with the role of caregiving (Carter, 1994, p. 55). The caregivers believed that with more information they would be more comfortable making decisions. Also, by educating and preparing themselves for the demands of caregiving, they would increase their ability to perform the role (Carter, 1994).

Remnet (1987) found that adult children felt themselves inadequately prepared to cope with their parents' age-related transitions. Although Remnet used a small sample that limits generalizability, she found that changes in parents' lives affected relationships with the adult children. The participants in the study identified three content areas where they desired more information: improved communication and understanding, information concerning processes of normal and abnormal aging, and availability of health care and supportive services. Participants preferred informal learning situations and obtaining information through magazines or journals, clubs or organizations, or from colleagues, friends, or role models. Most importantly, participants stated access to this information must "fit into their busy lives" (p. 353) and integrate with their schedules.

Osterkamp (1991) also proposed the need for more education and training for family caregivers, stating that caregivers want to know more about diseases and conditions, to understand and know how to administer drugs and treatment, to know what services are available, and how to cope with forms and regulations. Concerning parent care, Monk (1991) argues that a "willingness to help aging parents is not always a valid indicator of the ability, actual readiness, or endurance necessary to provide that help" (p. 176). Heery (1991) contends that education and preparation for the role of caregiving can help with evaluation of family support and community resources, but it can also assist with the formation of realistic expectations about responsibilities and outcomes of caregiving. Lechner (1993) also believes that it is important to assist caregivers early in their caregiving to mobilize informal support, locate and obtain community services, and improve communication with the care recipient.

Monahan (1994) found that family caregivers who participated in support groups were highly satisfied with the programs, but results have been inconclusive as to whether these programs decreased burden or stress or lead to attitudinal and behavioral changes. Greene and Coleman (1995) argue that despite the findings that education and support interventions tend to be "enthusiastically endorsed by participants" (p. 56), these results are based on clinical impressions, testimonials, and non-standardized evaluations that warrant cautious interpretation. They report that results are "more modest and more ambiguous" (p. 59) when experimental and quasi-experimental designs are used along with more objective measures. Meanwhile Brody (1995) perceives a new respect for the value of qualitative research and ethnographic studies.

Hasselkus and Ray (1988) investigated learning in family caregiving by trying to understand the informal learning that takes place in everyday life. They found that defining caregiving by task, rather than by meaning and purpose, resulted in tension between professionals and caregivers. They endorsed Schön's concept of reflection-in-action to "facilitate a reflective contractual relationship" (Hasselkus & Ray, 1988, p. 39) between the family caregiver and the professional. Bowers (1987) also found that "task-based" educational services for caregivers may be inconsistent with the caregiving experience. In fact, that facet of caregiving is considered to be the least important to caregivers.

Wagner and Neal (1994) investigated workplace interventions. They found that employee use of workplace programs was very low (1% to 4%) and that 37% of those attending did not have caregiving responsibilities "but anticipated becoming caregivers in the future" (p. 658). Most employees reported that they were uncomfortable discussing caregiving in the work environment. Underuse and lack of impact on outcomes could be the result of poorly planned and implemented educational interventions. Greene and Coleman (1995) believe other reasons why participation may be "underwhelming" for caregiver services are practical issues such as transportation and limited alternative care options. Thus efforts must be made to reduce the "costs" to caregivers who wish to access educational services. They also believe that there is a resistance toward formal services that place caregivers in the role of care receiver threatening their self-image.

Low enrollment for interventions may also mean that the formal system is ahead of the informal system in recognition of caregiving "as an institutionalized dimension of social life" (such as childrearing) "that requires a collective or formal response" (Greene & Coleman, 1995, p. 60). Meanwhile families continue to resolve problems and depend on resources within the family. Brody (1985) has stated that although caregiving is a statistically normative event, there is an "absence of behavioral norms" (p.23) that will continue until family caregiving evolves and develops a shared set of perceived needs, values,

and goals.

Public policy and human service recommendations formulated from the Care-Net survey findings include providing training for informal caregivers. This training could be sponsored by local private or public agencies or through community sponsored seminars and workshops on specific topics of concern. Basic knowledge and skills should be presented through these forums along with social and emotional support for caregivers. These forums could also increase the opportunity for communication and collaboration between formal and informal caregivers (Carter, 1994).

Before appropriate interventions can be developed, Greene and Coleman (1995) urge the development of longitudinal perspectives and models of the caregiving process. Also, by recognizing that caregiving is a "dynamic process characterized by changing caregiver and care recipient needs" (p. 59), research may lead to improved interventions. Pratt and Kethley (1988) stress the "danger of global solutions" if we hope to "respond appropriately to the increasing diversity of the aging family" (p. 574). No doubt both systems of care have much to learn from each other. It is essential that the informal and formal systems function as partners; only then will creative solutions be designed that promote quality of life for the caregiver and the care recipient.

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LEARNING TO LEARN, LEARNING TO CHANGE, LEARNING TO GROW: ACTION RESEARCH FOR NEW PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Judy Witt

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine action research as a way to operationalize one community college's ideals for collaborative organizational learning in their planning and new program development processes. The study set out to discover the learning processes that emerged though action research and to explore the application of action research as a learning method.

An action research team was formed and a two-tier action research project was undertaken. Tier one was an action research project on the development of an instructional program. Tier two was an examination of the learning that occurred at three levels--individual, team and organizational. Chris Argyris' model of single- and double-loop learning formed the framework for the team□s identification and analysis of learning at each of the levels. The literature review identified and explored the learning elements of action research: praxis, systematic cyclical inquiry, and collaboration. These elements were found to provide the process, content and context necessary for double-loop learning to occur.

The two tiers of action research are described. The narrative description reports the critical learning themes and processes that were identified and explored by the action research team. The research results show that in this case action research did provide a path toward single- and double-loop learning on the individual, group and organizational levels. The study also confirms that being in the business of learning does not predicate organizational ability to learn on any of the three levels. As supported by the findings, learning requires distinct and decisive organizational efforts that introduce and practice learning to learn processes. Learning in any organization must be considered a journey, not a destination. The study adds to the action research literature by contributing a description of an application of action research to community college administration and new program development for adult learners.

INTRODUCTION

Community colleges are facing many significant challenges. As they head toward the 21st century, demands from society, public policy, and technology are constantly pressuring them to change (Boggs, 1995; Gross, 1995). Each demands change and innovation within an environment of ever increasing complexity and flux. Society calls for attention to its increased diversity and for relevant, state of the art services, courses, and degrees. Public policy says, do more with less and be more accountable for it. Technology threatens to leave institutions behind and to move so quickly that it is almost impossible for them to keep up.

In this environment, there is a constant demand for program revision and new program development. Traditional strategies have fallen short in this area. Implementations have not consistently helped community colleges respond to the pressures of complex continuous change in their operating environments. Institutions need processes that assist them and the people within them to become capable of ongoing responsiveness and transformation. This paper describes an action research project at one community college that explored action research as that process, the process of *learning to learn administratively*.

Learning to learn administratively is a concept rooted in the work of Bateson (1972), Argyris (1992), and Schön (1975, 1983). Learning, in this sense, occurs through reflection, in cycles, and on all organizational levels. The learning process involves a cycle of action, reflection, and action again. Learning on the individual, the group, and the organizational levels is interrelated and integrated. In addition, it parallels the learning pattern found within the action research framework. Thus, the community college chose to explore *action research* as the learning methodology through which to operationalize its program development goals.

THE PROJECT

RESEARCH PROJECT AND PROCESS

An action research team (ART) consisting of six co-researchers was formed. These individuals represented administration, faculty, and staff. I was engaged as a consultant to the College and acted as the action researcher in this project. As such, my role was to facilitate the ART and to provide expertise in action research methodology.

Our research had three major goals. The first was to create a new accelerated degree program. The second was to discover the learning processes that emerged in each of us, in our action research team (ART), and in the institution during the project. The third was to explore the application of action research as a learning method in community college administration.

The ART members participated fully with me as co-researchers in each step of the action research process. In this paper, I will concentrate our research methodology and the ART members' discoveries regarding the learning that occurred.

RESEARCH GOALS

As the ART conducted the research, an important part of our work was observing and describing our own learning cycles. This we termed "action research on action research." The data it provided did more than build a new program. It also provided

1. New knowledge on the learning cycles experienced in the action research process in a higher education setting.
2. A "thick description" (Geertz, 1983) as in an extensive contextual portrait of the learning processes experienced by individuals in the business of learning.
3. Information on key learning processes inherent in the action research methodology.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The action research methodology for this study is adapted from the action research cycle described by Susman and Evered (1978) consisting of five phases: (1) analysis, (2) action planning, (3) action taking, (4) evaluating, and (5) specifying learning through reflection and collaborative interaction.

In this model, *analyzing* involves identifying an issue, problem or question to investigate. The analysis examines the issue from as many sides as possible given the information available to the action research team (ART). Once the issue is stated succinctly and clearly, the ART moves to *action planning*. In the *action planning* phase, the ART considers alternative courses of action for addressing the issues or solving the problem. Next, the agreed upon action is taken (*implementation*). The next phase, *evaluation* consists of studying the consequences or results of the action. Lastly, *learning* means to identify specific findings and examine what was learned by them and how it was learned. Out of the *learning* phase, new questions emerge. These may be about the same issue or others that have surfaced. Thus, a new cycle of research begins. It is this continuous learning process that leads many to call the action research cycle a spiral (Banfield, 1995; Tripp, 1990) for it is designed to be an ongoing or continuous learning framework.

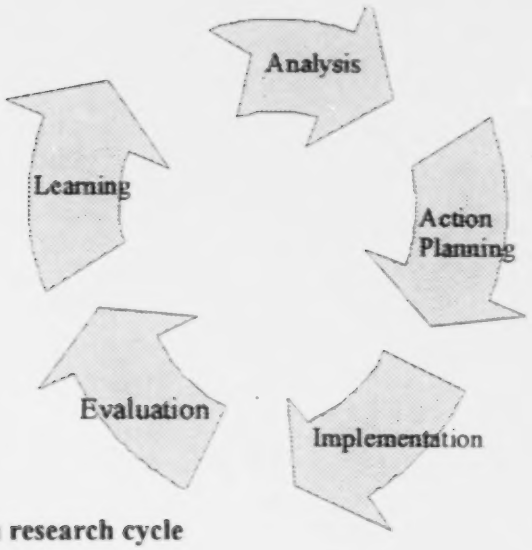

Figure 1: The action research cycle

TYPE OF DATA AND THEIR COLLECTION

The ART agreed that the data for the action research would consist of the following archival data: all associated meeting agendas and minutes, all written material on the project, the College Identity Booklet and College Catalog, 1996 and the Accreditation Self-Study Report 1996. In addition, the ART agreed to the following other data: transcriptions of the ART Meetings, individual ART member learning journals, transcriptions of depth interviews with each of the ART co-researchers, participant observation field notes. At the end of the project, we agreed that I would code the data and submit to the ART a first draft of our findings and solicit their feedback as a member check (Massarik, 1981) both individually and as a group.

PROCESS OF THE ACTION RESEARCH: DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis followed the iterative pattern (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Wolcott, 1994). This involved a balanced, interactive approach that was adapted from both interactive models of Wolcott and Miles and Huberman. The cycles of description, analysis and interpretation were interactive. Because the process was a dialectic one (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Wolcott, 1994), description, analysis and interpretation are not done in a linear fashion. For example, a description is written and then an analysis is based on the learning to learn framework. That analysis illuminates the description and may call for the inclusion of other material or the elimination of some piece already described. When discussing the emergence of thematic categories, Dey (1993) describes this dialectic process as, "distinctions within the data that can generate new categories, or contribute significantly to refining or modifying the original categories" (p. 98). Thus, the process occurs in a cyclical dialectic fashion.

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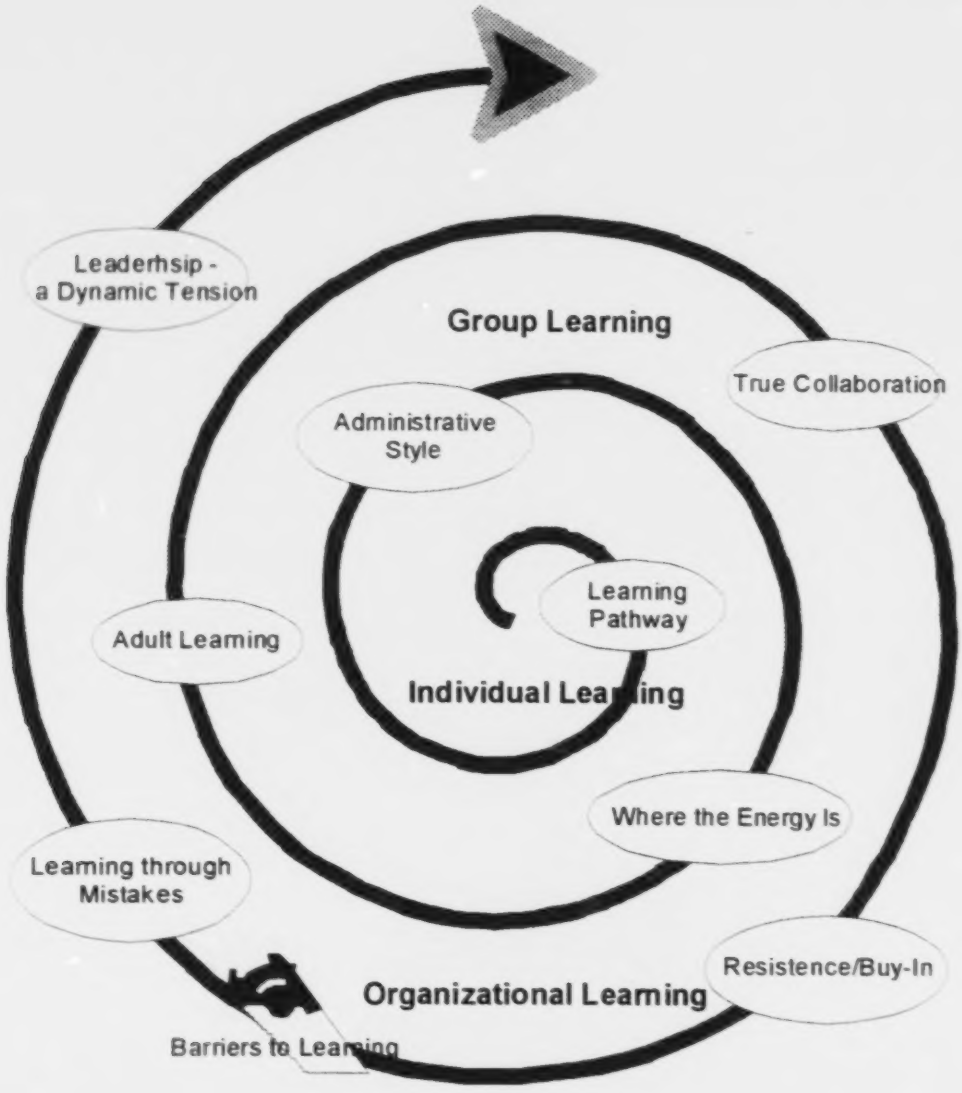

Figure 2: Emergent learning themes

ACTION RESEARCH OUTCOMES

Three cycles of action research were conducted to develop the accelerated degree program: curriculum development; marketing, recruitment, registration and orientation; and program assessment. Through this process, a successful program was initiated. However, more importantly emergent single and double loop learning cycles occurred. These were described on the individual, group, and organizational levels. Figure 2 (above) illustrates the identified themes. The ART used individual reflection and reflective dialogue as the major learning strategy. Individual learning emerged which fostered group learning. From the group learning organizational learning evolved. However, organizational learning only occurred as the impact of the group's work became dispersed or as individuals from the group interacted with the larger organization.

Each learning theme discovered by the ART led to the preliminary identification of principles of program development to be examined in future program development projects. In addition, the study supported the literature in action research that revealed three key principles of action research to praxis, systematic cyclical inquiry, and collaboration.

OBSERVATIONS ON RESEARCH CHOICES

In drawing conclusions from this action research project, it is important to remember that the ART made two choices that significantly impacted the nature and results of the work. The choice of action research methodology meant that the project was localized, i.e. it involved one project at one college. While other program developers and action researches may be able to use portions of the findings, there was no intent or attempt to generalize the results.

In addition, the ART made the choice to focus on a particular learning theory and type of learning within that theory. Learning was conceptualized as cyclical, humanistic and cognitive. Within that frame, the type of learning examined was single-/double-loop. Use of a different theoretical frame or a different emphasis within that frame may have produced different results.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

While the action research literature contains a vast body of knowledge and project examples, the continuing contribution of new projects is critical to the generation of knowledge and of scholarly discussion (Bartunek, 1993). This study added to the literature by providing an example of action research in the community college setting and by supporting the use of action research as a program development strategy.

In addition, this study suggests key principles of learning within program development. It identifies specific learning themes and provides a model of successful program development. It also raises cautions or questions. For example, a key theme emerged around where a program innovation is initiated. In this case, the initiation was driven by whom had the energy to do it (learning theme: where the energy is). One question raised in this theme is *what is the place of planning and feasibility versus energy and commitment in successful program development?* Other emergent learning themes also represent areas of caution and questions such as:

1. Administrative style: *What administrative style most successfully promotes innovation and new program development?*
2. Resistance/buy-in: *What strategies can be used to increase institutional support for new program development? Faculty support? Other constituency support?*
3. Leadership: *What are the appropriate level and timing of administrative coaching? How can administration develop effective coaching skills?*

From this study and my subsequent work, I have come to believe that a commitment to apply the three learning elements of action research (praxis, systematic cyclical inquiry, and collaboration) provides a viable framework for continuously learning to learn. The three elements are what must be included if learning, change, and innovation are to occur. First, as administration and faculty, we must commit ourselves to praxis. We must commit to bring the application of theory into our everyday work and to consciously generating theory out of it. Secondly, we must operate within a systematic frame and be disciplined in our continuous inquiry. Lastly, collaborative models are necessary to create a shared community and a level of energy necessary to meet the challenges of today's educational marketplace. This study challenges educators to examine their learning strategies and to engage in continuous improvement.

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ADULTS IN TRANSITION: CLINICIANS TO NOVICE FACULTY MEMBERS

Lee Zaslow

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate adults at a time of transition in their careers, to capture the perceptions of experienced physical therapy clinicians who have changed practice setting and become novice faculty members. This was a qualitative study that used field analysis to investigate the perceived challenges and satisfactions these people found in their academic settings. The conclusions from the data analysis showed that novice faculty perceive a need for the overarching construct of acculturation to academia. Four major themes are described and serve as the basis of recommendations that administrators can use in recruitment and retention of new faculty. The significance of this study lies in the conclusion that if professionals can be supported as they make the transition into a new field, they may be more comfortable and therefore more successful.

INTRODUCTION

Physical therapy is a health service that, despite major changes in the current system, is expected to remain as one of the necessary aspects of the provision of health care. There is an expected increase in the use of physical therapy due, in part, to recognition of its efficacy and the relation of that efficacy to managed care. Another issue is the aging population of the United States and the fact that the elderly use more health care than younger people (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1993).

The profession of physical therapy has two levels of accredited practitioners. The physical therapist is educated at Bachelor, Master, or Doctoral level. The physical therapist assistant is educated at the Associate degree level. Faculty for these programs traditionally are clinicians, those who have been in practice in the community. There are many unfilled faculty positions in established programs and difficulty in filling faculty positions in the many new programs in the planning stage.

This was a qualitative study that gathered data from survey, personal interview, and focus group and used field analysis to reach the conclusions. While this study used a sample of physical therapy educators, the perceptions of their challenges and satisfactions had to do with making the transition in practice setting from providing service to clients to teaching in a higher education setting, from being experienced clinicians to novice faculty members. This information thus might be applicable to other professionals in similar circumstances whose faculty are drawn from the field.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The shortage of physical therapy faculty has led to a need on the part of administrators of physical therapy education programs to assess how they recruit new faculty and what they can do to retain the faculty they have. The physical therapy literature on professionals who change careers and become academics is sparse. One study by Burke, Noller, and Caird (1992) looked at beginning teachers who had come from various professions and found that a supportive network was an important variable leading to perceptions of success.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study looked at novice teachers in an attempt to discover their attitudes and feelings about teaching itself, their preparation for teaching, the support they found from the educational program, and their awareness of the stresses of the transition from clinic to academia. The need for administrators to provide adequate numbers of qualified faculty forms the impetus of the study.The study was based on the literature in faculty development, faculty requirements, and faculty concerns. The following

research questions were addressed in the study.

How do professionals perceive they might be helped to make a smooth and lasting transition to academia? What are the concerns about teaching and about the culture of the university? What provides satisfaction in having made the transition from clinic to academia? Does the experience gained as a clician have an impact on their perceptions? What do novice teachers see as the challenges of the teaching experience? Are these challenges perceived as being met and by whom? What are the needs and suggestions for change? What are the satisfactions of the teaching experience? What are the tasks on which they spend their time? Have they fulfilled their expectations for becoming faculty?

METHODOLOGY

The techniques of qualitative research and field analysis were used to reveal the perceptions and attitudes of novice physical therapy faculty to their new practice setting. A survey was designed by the author that consisted of eight open ended questions about the satisfactions, challenges, perceptions of preparation of the volunteer participants, all novice faculty members from the 292 physical therapist and physical therapist assistant programs in colleges and universities nationwide. The questions used in the subsequent interviews were derived from the responses of the 87 surveys that were completed and returned. There were nine hour-long interviews. These interviews were tape recorded after appropriate consent was obtained and, while the basic outline of questions was always presented, each participant's interests led the direction of the responses. The third method of data collection was the focus group which was used to validate the findings by triangulation with the results of the surveys and the interviews.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing process. The results of the survey were categorized and the categories were revised and combined throughout the collection process and included the data of the interviews and the focus group. The responses to the eight survey questions were first read and entered into the computer. Categories were created made up of any response mentioned by more than one person. These categories were reviewed for themes. There were both negative and positive responses to many of the topics. It was found that each question on the survey ended up having no more than five themes. This finding showed a unanimity of thought of novice physical therapy faculty. There were a total of 32 topics. After the interviews, the data were recategorized into six themes and as a result of the information of the focus group, the data were arranged into four themes each having both a negative and a positive category.

Analysis of the data showed that these people, who all had been experienced in their prior positions and were now in a new setting, felt the need for acculturation into academia. This perception became the overarching construct of the data and is made up of four themes, each having a negative and a positive category. The first theme is that of contact with other faculty within the university and includes feelings of isolation in a new position and appreciation for collegiality when it occurs. The second theme is time. There is a stated feeling of work overload and an enjoyment of the flexibility of the academic schedule. The third theme is teaching. The participants spoke of their lack of preparation for the job and an appreciation that they need to keep current in their discipline. The last theme is students and the finding of the different behaviors and the pleasure of the teacher when students demonstrate learning.

CONCLUSIONS

The significance of the conclusions of this study lies in the information available to administrators of higher education programs. Novice faculty have perceptions of their new positions that are colored by their experiences in their previous work life. They know what they need in order to become successful in academia because of this previous experience. Administrators can foster an atmosphere that will allow acculturation to a new setting to occur. As Crow, Levine and Nager (1990) show, awareness of a new lack of competence causes discomfort. This discomfort can be eased by a plan that addresses the perceived needs. This plan should include a complete orientation to the university, to the department, and to the program. A reduced work load in the first semester or a pairing of novice with experienced faculty should be in place. There should be a plan for mentoring of novice faculty and fostering the culture of the mentor among the experienced faculty. These activities may be helpful to

higher education administrators in the recruitment and retention of faculty.

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PA- ACERC

SYMPOSIUM

Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

March 21, 1998

Symposium

Technology and Adult Education – Dream or Reality?

Kathleen P. King
Trenton R. Ferro
Patricia A. Lawler, Organizer/Chair

Pick up any recent Chronicle of Higher Education. Open any recent newsletter or professional journal. The topic of technology is everywhere. For all of us in the education area it poses an important challenge as we attempt to incorporate it into our professional lives. As adult educators working in diverse settings with various populations and varying resources, how are we facing the challenges technology poses for us in our practice? What are the concerns of the profession? What are our practical obstacles? How do we incorporate this changing paradigm in our everyday work? This symposium brings to the forefront the topic of how technology impacts our work. We address important questions that adult educator's face with the challenges of this technology; and we offer an opportunity to dialogue and seek out possible strategies for our practice.

Three questions focus the discussion. First, "How do we do hi-tech research?" As adult educators how do we take advantage of technology in designing and conducting research? Dr. Kathleen King addresses this question by reviewing how we can take advantage of technology in designing and conducting research through the use of web design, electronic email, listservs and their technical archives, online data bases, computerized statistical packages, and other internet and technical resources. She provides avenues for keeping abreast of fast moving changes and ways to model the use of technology in research for our students.

The second question focuses on the curriculum and the classroom, "How do we integrate technology into our curriculum?" As we struggle to learn and integrate these technologies, such as multi-media presentations, the World Wide Web and the Internet, along with distance education, what can we learn from each other? Dr. Trenton Ferro shares his summer class, Adult Education and Technology, and provides suggestions on how we can create and revise courses and curricula for the information age while adhering to the principles of adult learning. He relates his experiences on how we may successfully integrate computer and technology resources into our course presentations with special attention to the all too often lack of technical support.

Finally, we address a more personal issue, "How are we, as faculty, researchers, teachers, and program administrators dealing with technology?" Thinking of ourselves as adult learners in this process, Dr. Patricia Lawler explores our own comfort level with these new technologies and the professional challenge they pose. She poses the questions: Why are some of us able to learn, use and embrace technology, while others do not or cannot? Where are the supports and what kind is most helpful? And what is necessary for us to embrace information technology and be models for our learners? Utilizing her experience in faculty development, she provides strategies we can use for professional success.

These questions focusing on our research, curriculum, and our roles as professional adult educators have been mostly discussed in the theory. Our symposium provides us with the opportunity to share our experiences, success and challenges, practical concerns and strategies. It also affords us an opportunity to begin a support network and mentoring that Dr. Lawler recommends.

HOW DO WE DO HI-TECH RESEARCH?

Kathleen P. King

It is 1990, 9600 baud is a screaming modem and webs still belong to spiders in most people's minds. Julie is exploring A network called the "Internet" through a text-based interface; it is reminiscent of a computerized tunnel system and, in fact, is know as "gopher." Typing in choices from one on-screen menu to another, she successively navigates university computers in Boston, Chicago, Oregon, California and Florida. Finally she is looking at the welcome screen for the Library of Congress - Oops! Does anyone notice? Will security track her down? She looks over her shoulder and remembers she is in her home office using public Internet access - Whew! The sensation of "traveling" through the Internet has left her feeling that there must be an electronic version of windburn - forty-five minutes and you can go around the world! Julie feels like she has tapped into a hidden world of resources that few academicians are talking about in reference to their scholarly work.

Fast-forward to 1998 and Julie is daily logging into the Internet to "browse" the World-Wide Web for the latest educational publications, news and research contacts. The gopher system is still available, but it has been largely bypassed for the "point-and-click" convenience of the web. Her research contacts include those she has met via listservs and the web from California, Ireland, New Zealand, and Australia. She recalls that Saturday morning in 1990 when she first traversed the Internet and reflects on how much longer her "reach" seems now that she has so many more electronic resources and capabilities.

RESEARCH RESOURCES

This section discusses some of the ways adult educators may use technology in designing and conducting research. Examples of how e-mail, listservs, online databases, the web, statistical programs, and surveys may be used will be presented.

E-MAIL

Like Julie, educators all over the globe are extending their research and academic collaboration to include worldwide resources and contacts. The single greatest vehicle for this is e-mail, which goes beyond the common uses of keeping in touch and sharing ideas. For example, e-mail may be used to conduct asynchronous (non-simultaneous) meetings where an agenda is passed from person to person for comment. Another use of e-mail is collaborative writing where two or more people work on a writing project; they attach the document to an e-mail message and send it back and forth for editing. It is also becoming customary for international journals to request that submissions be sent via e-mail to drastically reduce turnaround time and the expense of postage and faxes.

LISTSERVS

An outgrowth of e-mail is an electronic discussion group, the listserv. Discussions on all types of topics, from adult education to qualitative research, are available. All that is required is subscribing by e-mail (at no cost) so that the discussion messages go to the user's e-mail box as well as to the other subscribers. This enables the subscriber to "hear" (read) and participate in the electronic conversation on subjects related to his or her area of research and study. For instance, someone may be doing a review of the literature on "metacognition" in literacy programs. One could use traditional resources, but may also choose to pose a question to the related listservs to gather recommendations from those participants. While educators may usually meet and interact at annual conferences once a year, listserv interaction is virtually infinite constrained only by interest and time. To see the vast assortment of listserv topics and titles that are available, go to the author's web site (King, 1998a) and follow the links. Specifically, as adult educators, a major listserv resource is the AEDNET (Adult Education NETwork) listserv that has over 4,000 subscribers worldwide (AEDNET, 1997).

Even beyond the current dynamic interaction among colleagues, listservs are often indexed and stored on the Internet in what is called an "archive." These archives may usually be reached via the

World-Wide Web, and then searched for key words, subjects or names. This creates a vast repository of information and contacts. The academic exchange enabled through listservs is a new dimension of experience; frequently today educators meet colleagues face-to-face at conferences only after they have known one another via listservs. The possibilities of listservs are among the best kept secrets in academia. While most educators have e-mail addresses in many cases a relatively few know about and participate in listservs.

ONLINE DATABASES

The availability of online databases such as libraries, ERIC documents and statistical information are improving rapidly. Educators can reach their institutions' libraries from the home and office by logging into the system through the Internet. A few libraries are still using proprietary programs, but most have migrated to the World Wide Web. In this way, many preliminary library functions may be conducted offsite; searching through the library's holdings, determining the availability of a specific resource and ordering it may all be done offsite in many instances. Some added features that many libraries are trying is taking interlibrary loan and acquisition requests via their web site. Other institutions are also "braving the waters" to offer some of their text resources online, such as making specific collections available for reading online. Project Guttenberg and Dartmouth's Dante Project are examples of such efforts. (See the symposium web page for links to these http://www.fordham.edu/gse/kpking/taer.htm.) Many hours of planning and preparation are needed to build such resources.

Additionally, educators are not limited to their own institutions' library, many institutions make their library collection online database open to the public through the web as well. This may be helpful for the researcher trying to track down the location of a resource on his or her own. Other libraries are part of consortiums where many libraries are searched through one search engine; this is a tremendous development for the researcher. These offsite capabilities provide the educator with more available resources in less time. Consequently, the educator's time on campus may be used to gather materials or meet with colleagues and students rather than searching resources.

Other online databases are also available offsite; the ERIC (Education Resource Information Center) index and abstract archives may be searched through a user-friendly interface via the web now. The full ERIC documents may then be retrieved from a university or public library that has the ERIC document microfiches, online from EDRS (http://edrs.com or email Service@aol.com) (for documents since 1994) which will send paper or electronic copies for a fee, or from the ERIC Clearinghouse. ERIC journal articles may be retrieved via interlibrary loan or Carl Uncover (http://uncweb.carl.org or email Uncover@carl.org). There are also many CD-ROM databases available in academic libraries. It is much quicker to electronically search these, versus paper indices; however, it must be noted that not all resources are indexed in the electronic databases and sometimes paper indices are essential. An added benefit is that these CD-ROM databases may be accessed offsite if the institution has developed an appropriate means to do this. One limitation is that because of copyright restrictions many of these databases are only available to members of institutions who own or subscribe to them. Today, researching reviews of the literature may be done much more quickly, completely, and thereby perhaps willingly.

Online databases of data that may be needed for research are also available through libraries, on CD-ROMS, through proprietary dial-up access, and on the web. Three examples of sources of such databases are the National Center for Education Statistics (http://nces.ed.gov), the U.S. Census Bureau (http://www.census.gov), and the Chronicle of Higher Education (http://merit.chronicle.com).

STATISTICAL SOFTWARE

Statistical software has vastly improved to enable most academic computer users to input data and run statistical tests. The newest Windows- and MAC-based versions are much easier to use than the mainframe versions when one needed to know a programming-like syntax to use them. These programs look like sophisticated spreadsheets and come with user-friendly tutorials (paper-based and online). While these programs do not protect the user from using the wrong statistical test or

method, they enable many more researchers to investigate possible data relationships than would have otherwise.

In order to use the statistical software, a file has to be created that has all the fields, labels and possible values. Once the format is established, data may be entered, and statistical tests selected and run. For instance, one may take two related sets of data and see if there is a correlation between them. In this instance, the type of correlation coefficient, Pearson, Spearman and/or Kendall, may be selected. The information is then displayed on the screen and may be formatted for a word processor and/or printed. Many good texts can guide the user through using the statistical programs (i.e., Norusis, 1996; Appendix in Graziano & Raulin, 1997). Educators no longer need to be scared off by these programs; instead the programs now make statistical analysis more accessible and easier.

SURVEYS

E-mail-based surveys are an alternative to traditional mail surveys. Several issues are related to choosing to use e-mail-based surveys, such as cost, format, mailing lists, and responses. A major consideration is that most educators incur no cost to e-mail documents and this would eliminate postage costs. Secondly, the researcher must consider whether the survey may be appropriately formatted for e-mail. Using the e-mail medium would most likely mean that graphics and much formatting, such as different fonts, could not be used as all mail readers do not handle them. In addition, a multiple page e-mail message is tiresome to read because of "screen breaks;" these considerations might prohibit using an e-mail format in some instances. Thirdly, mailing lists may be bought just like traditional mailing lists, but the educational researcher who uses e-mail surveys may access another resource - listservs. While researchers are dissuaded from "broadcasting" their survey to the entire listserv, they may locate appropriate listservs and ask for participants. It should be noted that the issue of response rate and e-mail surveys needs to be further developed and monitored to determine how it differs from traditional surveys. Finally, the researcher needs to carefully examine sampling criteria and realize that in some instances an e-mail list of respondents is a self-selecting sample.

WORLD-WIDE WEB

An important aspect of academic inquiry is the exchange of knowledge; this can be greatly enhanced with the World-Wide Web. One strategy for educators/researchers is to build a web site of relevant links about their research that will share information and also point to other information that may be accessed. Suggestions for such a project are to ask for recommended links from others, compile a web page, and keep the list updated. A site such as this has the possibility of attracting worldwide inquiries and contacts on a research topic and provides new possibilities for research. Many resources are available to enable the building of such a site (King, in press); some of the basic ones are as easy as using your word processor (e.g., Microsoft Word 97) to design a web page and then pushing a button to have it convert it to web language (HTML - hypertext marked up language). The additional step of sending your new web pages to the Internet is called FTP (File Transfer Protocol). This involves having space on a computer that is linked 24 hours a day to the Internet. Usually such access to computer space is available through educational institutions, but they may also be acquired from private Internet service providers (ISPs). The person responsible for the computer access determines each user's directory name, login and password. This information is then entered into an HTML program/editor or in a separate FTP program to transfer HTML files to the World Wide Web. When files are transferred to the "host" computer they will have an URL (Uniform Resource Locator) address that begins with "http://."

KEEPING PACE WITH TECHNOLOGY

As technology continues to change drastically every few years, the adult education researcher needs to find reliable methods of staying current in technical skills. There are many ways to accomplish this; several are cited here as examples that have been worthwhile. The use of technology itself may be used in joining a listserv on adult education, educational technology or research technology, participating in online classes through e-mail or the web, or participating in a conference facilitated by satellite video-conferencing. Adult educators may encourage their institutions to regularly conduct

workshops by bringing in specialists that will facilitate hands-on sessions of technology use in education and research. Computer trade magazines may serve to inform on current developments, equipment and applications. Several educational journals now are either centered on the technology issues or have specialized sections that do; example of these include *T.H.E., Syllabus* and *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Trade magazines also provide a major source of information about current and emerging magazines; *PC Magazine, PC Computing, PC Today* and *Home Office Computing* are a few examples of such periodicals. In addition, online versions of most of these periodicals are also available; see the resource web page for more information. A final possibility is to develop a mentoring relationship with someone who is knowledgeable in technology applications to education and research. There are other possibilities as well that may be explored, but the critical point is that adult education researchers who want to stay current in technology need to expend concentrated effort in order to do so. Educators may make it an enjoyable endeavor by approaching it as an ongoing discovery of available new tools that are waiting for them.

CONCLUSION

Admittedly, there are limitations to the hi-tech research route. Some of these limitations include the need for face-to-face interaction with others, the learning curve for new technologies and programs and the alluring "timesink" characteristic of computer use. However, while technology may take a little longer at first and it may not replace all face-to-face meetings, it provides many good supplements. One of the major steps educators can take is to open their minds to a new way of doing research: begin to consider whether an e-mail response might be quicker, contemplate the use of online databases for data needs, do preliminary literature searches from a distance, or disseminate information through the web. Hi-tech research extends the individual's reach much further than it used to be. Research can be all the more exciting, timely and progressive because of it.

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HOW DO WE INTEGRATE TECHNOLOGY INTO OUR CURRICULA?

Trenton R. Ferro

I want to make one point clear from the start: I do not want to pass myself off as an expert on technology or its use. Rather, I am a fellow traveler with my Adult and Continuing Education colleagues, asking questions and seeking answers and directions. Consequently, I want to emphasize the interactive nature of this symposium. We also need to hear not only your questions but also your experiences. What have you tried? What has worked? What can the rest of us learn from that? What hasn't worked? What can we learn from that?

I also want to emphasize that we are talking about using technology within our current, existing courses and curricula, not about adopting and using distance education as the major mode of program delivery--a topic that deserves to be addressed separately. In other words, we are talking about learning situations in which facilitator and participants are physically in the same space at the same time on a regular basis throughout the course or program.

I would like to highlight a course I taught last summer which allowed me to begin my own exploration of ways to use technology that could help enhance the learning experience. This was a new course, being taught for the first time, in our new track, Adult Education and Communications Technology. While the content of the course, Seminar in Adult Education and Technology, concentrated on understanding the methods and issues connected with distance education, the participants and I met for regular classes and made field trips to observe how institutions use technology to deliver courses.

However, since the emphasis was on the use of technology, I tried, with various degrees of success, several ways to incorporate that technology into the overall design of the course:

*E-mail--This I used in two ways. 1) Distribution list--I developed a distribution list which allowed me to communicate with all participants in the class at the same time. This was of extreme importance because this summer class ran for only five weeks. Much of the planning of field trips and use of interactive video (see below) took place between sessions through this means of communication. 2) personal communication--Individual students and I were able to discuss a variety of course-related topics throughout the week and on week-ends. This enhanced considerably the progress of the class and the development of individual projects. Although we didn't do so for this class, e-mail can also be used for submitting projects and papers, and instructors can even react to those submissions on line.

*Web pages--This was truly a learning experience, and I am still learning. I developed (not with total success) a web site that included my syllabus and other course information. What I wasn't able to accomplish, but will still strive to undertake, was the inclusion of supplementary readings and lists of resources, both print and electronic. The latter would include a number of listservs related to the course content. A major element of any well-developed web site will be the inclusion of links to other key web sites that contain both pertinent subject content and resources for research and for helping with the research process.

*Interactive videoconferencing--This particular aspect of the use of technology was the most successful and set this course off from all others with which I have been involved up to now. We made use of two-way video/audio for two different types of projects. 1) We conducted four interviews with adult educators noted for their knowledge about, and use of, technology in the delivery of adult, continuing, and community education. 2) We made one of our field trips using videoconferencing. While sitting in our room at IUP, two of our students who work at another institution gave us a video tour of their distance education facility. The use of videoconferencing calls for adequate technical support and requires considerable advance planning, both for establishing the phone connections between the two sites and for preparing for the interviews and tour. There was considerable e-mail contact among the technical support people on the one hand

and the participants in the interviews on the other to make sure that the video conferences themselves ran smoothly.

*On a different tack, it is possible to develop slick classroom presentation materials by using Power Point. Again, I am on the front edge in using this technology. I saw no value in developing materials until I had the technological support for using the slide shows in the classroom. Such support has recently been made available on campus and has been ordered for our Monroeville site. Consequently, I will now move ahead on this front as well.

In addition to the experiences listed above, I have also benefited considerably from attending SSHE-sponsored conferences on using technology in the classroom. Faculty from throughout the system demonstrate the various ways they have actually used technology and give pointers for helping the rest of us copy their efforts.

DEALING WITH TECHNOLOGY – THE PERSONAL SIDE

Patricia A. Lawler

As I sat at my computer to write out this short piece, my computer began to function in strange and mysterious ways. First, the printer cartridge ran out of ink, then the paper jammed and as I was trying to download documents from AOL, it just shut down! Now I know how to "reboot," but what I didn't know was how to interpret the strange and mysterious messages it was sending me regarding the disk space and scanning. The deadline at hand, what was I to do but panic!

Technology is everywhere...faxes, the WEB, voice mail and email, scanners and PowerPoint. As educators technology and the information explosion surround us. Our institutions may be "encouraging" distance education and multimedia presentations. Our offices may be eliminating paper trails. And our homes may be fast becoming workplaces.

Scholars, practitioners and writers in our field of adult education are quick to tell us of the latest technological development, report on how the newest methodology can make for better learning in the classroom, and praise the technology revolution in our administrative and program development activities. Although we do need this information to keep current in our profession, there is little attention paid to our experiences with technology. What is the personal side of this professional challenge? Why are some individuals able to learn, use and embrace technology, while others do not or cannot? Where is the support? What is necessary for us to embrace information technology and be models for our learners? It is time we address these questions and explore our own experiences in adult learning.

Those Who Can, Do...
When it comes to technology, there appears to be several reactions to this onslaught. From my experiences in faculty development, teaching graduate students, and my own learning, I have come to several conclusions regarding these four reactions. First, we have students and colleagues who seem born to technology, eager to tackle the newest tool and fearless and patient in their interactions with machines. On the opposite side of the spectrum we have those among us who stubbornly refuse to acknowledge computers and web sites exist. In between we have various levels of comfort and interest. Can we predict who will be comfortable and who will refuse to engage? One insight comes from looking at libraries. College libraries are probably one of the most noticeable places where we see the impact of technology on the workers and the work. That is why a recent study (Fidishun, 1996) investigating how women working in libraries were coping with the technological changes is so helpful. The study dispelled the stereotype that older women were uncomfortable with technology and found that those women who were independent all their lives

were more at ease with change and learning, then those who were more traditional in their social and work roles as women. In my work here at Widener, my colleagues and I found that our faculty was interested in learning technology but felt more comfortable when there was support and explanations. (Lawler, DeCosmo, & Wilhite, 1996; Wilhite, DeCosmo, & Lawler, 1996) Just being familiar with the web may not translate to using it as an instructional tool in the classroom. Hands on training and individual mentoring were mentioned by faculty as important supports for change.

A useful model for understanding this is, is the concept of personality types. Having much experience with the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, I see a connection between a person "type" and their affinity for technology and more important, risk taking and change. As I have read descriptions of various "types" I can see how some may be more inclined to work with technology. Just as certain "types" are drawn to certain careers or ways of learning, different "types" may or may not enthusiastically tackle the work of technology. On a personal level, looking at how we view the world, our learning styles, and our comfort level with change will provide clues on how we may be adapting to the technological revolution. I believe this area needs some study.

Support, what support?

As adult educators we know a great deal about self-directed learning. And of course we have read Tough's seminal work on our independent learning projects. But how do these ideas relate to creating web pages, using email for class discussions, and creating a PowerPoint lesson? We work in organizations and institutions, which (if they are non-profit) are fiscally challenged to keep current in the latest technology. For some, there are readily available resources, current equipment, and reliable and user-friendly support. But as I speak to my colleagues, I find that many of us are struggling with limited resources, incompatible and antiquated equipment, and little or no support. The aura that surrounds computers places the burden of learning and proficiency on the user. We may feel responsible for the problems, glitches and system failures that appear to occur at every juncture...or at least when we have a deadline! Finding the answers and sources of help, and I might add, creating the questions, may seem daunting. Yet, in this learning endeavor, support is important. And for those of us, who are not self-directed learners, it can be crucial.

The Optimist

Now, the picture may not be as bleak as I paint it. And for adult educators we have a rich knowledge base to help ourselves and our learners cope and learn with these new challenges. Applying our adult education principles and practices, looking to the literature for understanding of motivation, adult learner needs, styles and types can inform as we embrace technology. We want to seek out support, lobby for more user-friendly (translate adult education) training, and create networks and mentoring opportunities. Most important I believe we need to set individual priorities and goals, which are realistic. What can we learn within the context of our organizations and their resources, within the time we have available? We should identify for ourselves how technology can enhance our professional life. Conversations, in person and over the Internet, are good places to start! And as we understand our own experiences from an adult learning perspective, we can enhance our work with our students, being role models in these challenges.

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CLOSING REMARKS

Pennsylvania Adult and Continuing Education Research Conference

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1998 Pennsylvania Adult & Continuing Education Research Conference

Closing Remarks

PAULO FREIRE AND THE PHILOSOPHY OF ADULT EDUCATION

John L. Elias

The death of Paulo Freire last year provides the opportunity to assess his important contribution to philosophy of education in general and the philosophy of adult education in particular. Although Freire has influenced many academic disciplines and areas of study including theology, philosophy, political science, cultural studies, social theory, education, and communications, when one examines his writings and impact, it becomes clear that he was first and foremost an adult educator, specializing in the philosophy of adult education as well as its practice. It is his contribution to adult education, and especially the philosophy of adult education, that is the focus of this paper.

The influence of Freire can be seen in the many dissertations that have been done on his work. A recent search came up with one hundred and seventy studies in which Freire's work was a major focus. Sherritt (1989) found that most of the professors of adult education surveyed were familiar with his work, especially *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, and used his theories and methods in their teaching. Eighty three percent of the professors of adult education were familiar with *Pedagogy*. Curiously, twenty three percent reported that they had read a fictitious book that was included n the survey.

While Freire began his work as a lawyer acting in behalf of peasants rights, he quickly realized that the best way for him to contribute to the social advancement of the peasants in the poverty-stricken Northeast of Brazil was through involvement in a program of adult literacy that had the social goal of combating economic oppression and the political goal of fostering participatory democracy. It was this adult literacy work that later impelled him to assume a university professorship in the history and philosophy of education. With the active co-operation of his students he developed a politically charged method of adult literacy, whose great success made him the target of the military government that took political control in Brazil after the coup of 1963. Exiled from his native Brazil he worked for the next thirty years in developing a pedagogy of the oppressed. He also wrote extensively and lectured almost universally on education for political literacy. Freire's principal active involvement was with left-wing governments in Latin America and Africa that had recently come into power and that wanted to embark on a more democratic form of education. Fortunately, Freire was able spend the last decade of his life in Brazil, where he resumed his university work in adult education.

Freire has given us a description of his method, which includes an investigation of the cultural context of learners, the choice of politically charged generative words or themes, and the actual literacy process. He wrote in the one of his workbooks (Freire and Macedo, 1987):

> By practicing reading and writing, you, comrades, learned to read and write at the same time that you discussed matters of interest to our People. You did not learn to read by memorizing by heart "ba-be-bi-bo-bu," by simply repeating "ta-te-ti-to-tu." While you learned to read and write, you comrades, discussed the national reconstruction, production, health, unity, discipline, and the work of our people in national reconstruction. (p. 74)

This presentation of Freire's principal contributions to the philosophy of adult education takes the form of an extended commentary on what I consider the clearest description of the philosophy of adult education that motivated him. In an early work, *Cultural Action for Freedom*, Freire (1970b) stated that:

> Our philosophy cannot do without a vision of persons and of the world. It formulates a scientific humanist conception which finds its expression in a dialogical praxis in which teachers and learners alike together, in the act of analyzing a dehumanizing reality, denounce it while announcing its transformation in the name of human liberation. (p. 20)

In this statement Freire indicates that his philosophy of education, which comes from a lifelong refection on his practice, is rooted in a philosophical vision of persons and the social world. It is both scientific and humanist in drawing both on Marxist social thought and Christian theology. His theory's central focus is on the dialogical praxis of teachers and learners whom he regards as equals in the educational process. The ultimate goals of Freire's liberatory education are a critical analysis of oppressive social situations and the proclamation of a liberating activity to deal with forms of oppression within a particular culture.

Freire is largely responsible for the increased attention given to the philosophy of adult education in the past thirty years. His principal works are largely philosophical reflections and analyses on his methods of both literacy and political education. In these analyses he made extensive use of the whole philosophical tradition. Freire utilized Plato's important distinction between knowledge and opinion to describe what he meant by conscientization, a process by which individuals go beyond mere opinion to the sure possession of knowledge about their cultural situation. His theory of persons is indebted to Christian humanism, existential phenomenology, and humanistic Marxism in it stress on the freedom of individuals to both create and shape their social realities. His theory of knowing draws on various theories of knowledge developed by European existentialists and phenomenologists that make the nature and development of historical and social consciousness the heart of philosophical inquiry. Freire's criticism of education relies not only on John Dewey's critique of traditional education as overly passive and teacher-centered but also on the Marxist critique of education as a societal structure that perpetuates existing inequities by failing to include a liberating praxis. In his description of the role of the teacher Freire drew on various elements of Dewey's progressive education, especially the role of the teacher as coordinator of learning, as well as on Martin Buber's theory of education as dialogue among equals. His reliance on past philosophers is so extensive that in point of fact readers have difficulty with his often confusing eclecticism about which it has been noted that

> Only those who are, in part, all of these people at once or who have, in their own history, passed by way of these different "stages" and been submitted to these different "influences" can grasp the totality of Freire's intellectual development. (In Denis Collins, 1977, p. 26)

In Freire's philosophy persons are considered not as separate individuals but rather as individuals in society. For him humanization is not an individual goal but a social goal. Individuals have the "ontological and historical vocation to be more fully human (1970a, p. 40)." His ideas on persons are derived both from Christian personalism and Marxism humanism. Humanization for Freire occurs through growth in social awareness and engagement in political and cultural life. Paradoxically, humans must strive to become what they are already by their very nature. In his clearly optimistic reading of human nature what makes individuals human for Freire is their openness to engagement in the world and their ability to gain objective distance from the world, to transcend the world, to engage in critical reflection upon the world, to give meaning to the world, and to create history and culture. Freire uses this view of human nature as the criterion for critiquing society and the education that takes place within it.

Abadi (1982) in his study of Freire's philosophy of persons identified four key elements: dialogue, praxis, critical consciousness, and history. For Freire persons can achieve conscientization through co-operation in dialogue as well as in the human activities that are related to it. Through this activity persons are able to create history and become historical beings in a particular social context.

Freire's philosophy of education is also rooted in an explicit social theory. Freire's pedagogy of liberation calls for a social critique of the society in which learners find themselves. In his earliest efforts this critique took the form of a penetrating analysis of forms of economic, political, and social oppression. While he utilized the tools of Christian democratic analysis in his first work, from *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* on he drew more on the Marxist tradition of social theory that focuses

on the major conflicts present in a society, especially conflicts between classes and between employers and workers. The society Freire presented as ideal was the socialist classless society, which he described as:

> A new society without exploiters and exploited. It is a society in which no man, no woman, no group of people, no class exploits the work force of others. It is a society in which there are no privileges for those who work with the pen and only obligations for those who work with their hands on the farms and in the factories. All workers are to serve the well being of everyone. (Freire and Macedo, 1987, p. 82)

Freire's social criticism extends not just to the state but also to the churches, schools, and modes of communication. In his most mature thinking Freire situates himself within the tradition of social and liberal democracy.

The student of Freire soon learns that a theory of knowing and knowledge is at the heart of his philosophy of education. All his works include long passages probing what it is for humans to know. Freire stated that "education, cultural action, animation—the name doesn't matter—always implies, at the level of literacy and post-literacy education, a theory of knowledge put in practice and a way of knowing (1978, p. 88)." Freire's theory of knowledge as dialectic and dynamic is central to his understanding of education. Freire recognized that since our knowledge is culturally determined, we need an intentional mode of education for developing a critical consciousness of what our culture transmits to us. In *Pedagogy in Process* (1978) he explained his theory of knowledge:

> The theory of knowledge that serves a revolutionary objective and is put into practice in education is based upon the claim that knowledge is always a process, and results from the conscious action (practice) of human beings on the objective reality which, in its turn, conditions them. Thus a dynamic and contradictory unity is established between objective reality and the persons acting on it. All reality is dynamic and contradictory in this same way. (p. 89)

This theory of human knowledge led Freire to advocate an approach to education that considers what we learn from the culture as possessing hidden value judgments that need to be challenged through a problem posing and dialogical form of education. This insight is the fundamental basis for the critical pedagogy that has many advocates among adult educators.

Freire's approach to adult education conceptualizes it as cultural, social, and political praxis or action. In many talks and writings he valiantly attempted to counter the notion that education was merely about the transmission of inert ideas, what he called "the banking approach" to education. Freire's refusal to use primers in his literacy education is based on the insight that such primers present a ready made social world to learners, a world view that possesses many assumptions that need to be examined. For him education begins with an analysis of the world of culture, that is, an investigation of the words, themes, stories, slogans, and images operating often sub-consciously but powerfully in the lives of learners. His goal was to have participants gather in cultural circles in order to challenge not only the imposed culture but also to enable them to critique the very social structures that transmitted oppressive cultural elements. In the ensuing years Freire's ideas have spawned approaches to education that emphasize social transformation, stress emancipatory action, and make use of liberational concepts. The learners were encouraged to do this through an education that aimed at fostering not neutrality but political commitment. For Freire (1970b):

> Educational practice and its theory cannot be neutral. The relationship between practice and theory in an education oriented toward liberation is one thing, but quite another in education for the purpose of domestication. (p. 12)

Freire admitted that early in his work he did not make sound connections between education and politics. In a more recent work he admitted to being naïve about this connection:

> I began to understand the nature of limits on education when I experienced the shock of the coup d'état. After the coup I was really born again with a new consciousness of politics, education, and transformation. In my first book I don't make reference there to the politics of education. But, I was able to learn after that about history. All these things taught me how we needed a political practice in society that would be a permanent process for

> freedom, which would include an education that liberates. (Shor and Freire, 1987, pp. 32-33)

It is Freire's approach to the relationship of theory and practice that has greatly influenced contemporary adult educators. Like Dewey he rejected the classical view of Greek philosophy according to which theory is superior to practice, a view that was based on the social situation of slaves performing manual work. He also rejected the empiricist view that practice or experience is superior to theory. Like Marx and Dewey he posited a dialectical relationship between theory and practice according to which theories are reflections on practices and practices are challenges to our theories. Unlike other philosophies of education that have had a purely theoretical basis, Freire's philosophy of education represents his attempts to reflect on the educational efforts in which he was personally engaged.

Freire's approach to education has given rise to critical pedagogy in which social and educational criticism has a prominent role. While Freire was strictly speaking not within the ambit of the critical social theory of the Frankfort School, his critical Marxist thrust led him to a similar questioning of the social reality conveyed through traditional education. Freire held up to criticism almost every aspect of education. He challenged the lack of equality between teachers and learners and the overly directive role afforded to teachers and the rather passive role ascribed to learners. He also called into question the lack of learner freedom in the educational process. In no uncertain terms he pointed out the potential for oppression in the use of prepackaged learning units.

Among adult education theorists one sees the influence of Freire's critical pedagogy in Jack Mezirow's theory of perspective transformation, Stephen Brookfield's transactional learning theory and critical thinking, the dialectical approach of Colin Griffin, the social learning theory of Michael Collins, and Ernest Gelpi's approach to lifelong learning. In the area of general education Freire has had a major influence on the work of Michael Apple, Henry Giroux, and Peter MacLaren. Giroux (1985) assessed Freire's contribution to critical pedagogy:

> Freire has appropriated the unclaimed heritage of emancipatory ideas in his versions of secular and religious philosophy within the corpus of bourgeois thought. He has also critically integrated into his work a heritage of radical thought without assimilating many of the problems that have plagued it historically. In effect Freire has combined what I call the language of critique with the language of possibility. (p. xii)

The latest radical educator that shows a strong influence from Freire's writings is bel hooks, the African American radical feminist. In her *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom (1994)* (the second part of the title is the same as Portuguese and Spanish title of Freire's first book) she documents her indebtedness to Freire for introducing her to critical pedagogy. She calls him her intellectual mentor and guide for introducing her to liberatory ideas. hooks extends Freire's social analysis of oppression by applying his social critique to racial, gender, and sexual oppression. hooks even defends Freire against critics that have charged him with using sexist language. She argues that he has provided the very principles by which the sexist language in his earlier works can be critiqued. Of Freire's influence on her hooks (1994) has written:

> His writing gave me a way to place the politics of racism in the United States in a global context wherein I could see my fate linked with that of colonized back people everywhere struggling to decolonize, to transform society. More than in the work of many white bourgeois feminist thinkers, there was always in Paulo's work recognition of the subject position of those most disenfranchised, those who suffer the gravest weight of oppressive forces. (p. 53)

What I have said so far talk is a positive appraisal of Freire's work. Those turning to him in the future have to be aware of some limitations and criticisms to which his ideas should be subjected. No theory no matter how well thought out can be immune from criticism. Freire himself has pointed out a number of naïve concepts expressed in earlier works. His work can be viewed as a lifelong dialogue with himself. At times Freire preaches where he should be more analytic. His philosophy of persons lacks the realism found in other theorists. His social theory is at times simplistic in seeing

things in black and white terms. His theory of knowledge often appears to fall into the idealist trap that he labors to avoid. His critique of education may not give sufficient weight to the values of history and tradition in human learning. His exclusive focus dialogue as a method in education minimizes the value of other methods of teaching and learning (Elias, 1994).

From a postmodern perspective his theory appears overly rational with insufficient attention given to the work of the imagination. While Freire's work places critical reason at the center of education, postmodernists have pointed out the serious limitation of any approach t life or education that relies so strongly on rationality, analysis, and criticism. They would find his work suffused with many modern notions that they feel should be rejected. His reliance on the metanarratives or worldviews of Christianity and Marxism offers a simplistic view of history. Postmodernists would also reject his emphasis on the autonomous subject, a common humanity, the possession of truth, and his reliance on theory.

Keeping these criticisms in mind, we can still ask whether Freire's work will continue to be a force among educators in the next century. I believe that it will. Wherever people suffer oppression and educators are motivated to help them understand and remove the causes of oppression, Freire's work will have a lasting place. The forms of oppression that Freire addressed in his writings were economic, political, and social. To these forms of oppressions we can add also add religious, sexist, and racist oppressions. Freire's optimist philosophy of persons, society, and education can help counter the pessimism that plagues all reformers as well as many postmodern academics. His vision of a society dedicated to the humane values of freedom, equality, and fraternity will stand as a challenge to all state forms of oppression.

Freire's work will continue to be seen as a remarkable and classic statement about the power of education to address in a realistic manner the social problems of the times. His abiding message is that there is hope for humankind as long as people are free both to educate and to be educated. By giving the world a noteworthy pedagogy of the oppressed, he may indeed become for many generations a pedagogue of liberation.

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